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The influence of student perception of teacher emotional intelligence and happiness on foreign language learning

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I hereby declare that the work presented in this thesis is my own.

Abstract

Most students have private beliefs and opinions about their foreign language teachers, who often assume the role of facilitator, authority figure, and lead motivator. Not only is the student/teacher relationship mutually involved and reciprocal, it is usually interwoven in complex ways. Nevertheless, students' impressions of their teachers' emotional states are rarely quantified. This study aims to address this gap by investigating how student perceptions of language teachers relate to student self-reported motivation and attitudes. Data were collected from high-intermediate to advanced level ESL/EFL students. General background information was gathered to control for factors such as the number of years of past English study and exposure outside of the classroom. An online questionnaire was administered consisting of sections about student perceptions of teacher emotional intelligence using an adapted version of the TEIQue 360° Short Form (Petrides & Furnham, 2006), student perceptions of teacher happiness using an adapted version of the Oxford Happiness Inventory (Argyle, Martin & Crossland, 1989), and student self-reported motivation and attitudes using an adapted form of the AMTB (Gardner, 1985). Respondents were also asked about their teacher's classroom behavior, as past research has shown that teachers with a higher level of EI tend to be more enthusiastic and enjoy their students more (Dewaele & Mercer, 2017).

The findings reveal that students who report a higher score for their teacher's EI and happiness indices themselves show greater levels of motivation and positive feelings and lower levels of anxiety. The results indicate that while both teacher EI and happiness are influential, teacher EI matters more to students than teacher happiness. The purpose of this project is threefold: to give students a voice, as they are rarely

given a platform to honestly express their opinions of their teachers, to shed light on the complex student/teacher relationship and its potential influence on foreign language acquisition, and to offer practical suggestions for applied use by teachers in the FL classroom.

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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1. Personal statement

The impetus for this research comes in large part from my first experience as a teacher of ESL to adult newly arrived immigrants and refugees in an urban setting in the New York City area. The classes were part of a public program for adult education and refugee resettlement. The student body was comprised of a wide range of people of various ages, nationalities and professional and socioeconomic backgrounds. Their only common factor was an urgent need to learn basic survival English. Many of the classes dealt with dry topics such as how to fill out forms in English and conduct simple face-to-face transactions, like asking for directions. Nevertheless, I tried to infuse the material with playfulness and humor and to create some semblance of community in the classroom. After much effort, my attempts eventually proved successful. The class gelled and it was extremely gratifying to see friendships formed and relationships cultivated.

At the end of the course, students were asked to fill out an evaluation form in their first language, which was then translated to English by the programs volunteer translators and case workers. I took a curious peek to see what they had written, and was (perhaps naively) surprised to see that most of the evaluations were about me personally, often in quite emotion-laden terms. It became clear to me from a teacher's point of view that emotions are fundamental in language learning, and furthermore that the teacher-student relationship is of central importance. What also became clear is that students formulate opinions of their teachers based on variables both beyond the teacher's control (such as appearance, age, gender, and language background) as well as variables that might be somewhat within the

teacher's control (such as tone, gestures, intonation, and facial expression). The question then started to emerge: how do these emotional impressions of teachers relate to the students' attitude and motivation to learn the target language?

Some of the motivation for this research also comes from my own negative teaching experiences. One particular institution where I taught had very rigid rules and guidelines for teachers, including administrative tasks which were exorbitantly time consuming, mind-numbing and seemed to serve no purpose other than maintaining protocol. To make matters worse, teachers were constantly monitored and summarily treated with suspicion. It felt infantilizing and ironically had the reverse effect of sparking a sense of rebellion and opposition in otherwise professional, competent adults. The situation presented me with a strange and unfamiliar incongruity: I enjoyed my time in the classroom and felt a good rapport with my students, but I often found myself brooding over the many rules and meaningless tasks teachers were forced to perform, and which consumed a huge chunk of time that would have been better spent lesson planning, grading, or simply interacting with students.

As I entered the classroom every day, I tried my best to smile and appear cheerful, though privately I wondered if my feigned positivity came off as contrived. My students seemed for the most part perfectly content with their university and with my classes. Did they have any idea how invidious the atmosphere was behind the scenes for teachers, and if they knew would they even care? Could they sense the tension and unhappiness festering beneath the surface? I hoped not. The idea of teacher happiness at the time seemed to me like a bold and idealistic concept, one

which would always be superseded by student happiness, as if the two existed on entirely unrelated planes.

Amongst ourselves over tea and biscuits in the lounge, teachers would vent our frustrations, discuss our difficulties and compare coping strategies (which far too often seemed to involve alcohol). These informal teacher chats ended up forging a deep sense of camaraderie and collegiality. Still, the disparity between what teachers experienced inside the classroom - for the most part, we were proud of our shared profession and enjoyed teaching our classes - and what we were made to deal with outside the classroom felt like a cruel comedy. (Unsurprisingly, the institution has a very high rate of teacher attrition.)

In examining the emotions of English teachers from a critical perspective, Benesch (2018) set out to explore teacher emotion labor as a response to institutional power, and to “honor emotion labor as a potential signal of a need for change and source of teacher activism” (p. 1). She looks at the emotions that are usually considered positive for language teachers such as optimism, enthusiasm, friendliness, and asks the question: “What if the research lens was widened beyond the classroom to include social conditions that affect teachers and students?” (p. 3). Essentially, she argues that the positive emotions that teachers are encouraged to display in the classroom cannot be viewed in isolation from the greater context of the teacher’s professional situation, which might entail such negatives as long hours, meager pay, and in my case, a glut of unnecessary paperwork and lack of professional support.

The highs and lows of teaching led me to pursue a more conscious and examined practice and I have tried to create a personal template for good teaching.

While my conceptualization of what that means is flexible enough to accommodate change, certain aspects have become cemented, such as the importance of a sense of humor and bidirectional respect in the classroom. When I began researching teacher psychology, I noticed how the obsessive “Focus on the Learner” which is repeated in SLA like a mantra, has diverted much needed attention from research on teachers. I expected that in the course of research my interest in language teacher psychology would intensify, which it has. However there was also an unexpected side effect: I have turned into something of an advocate for teachers-- their support, recognition, respect, and yes, happiness. It is my sincere hope that as the scope of research expands, the student/teacher relationship will be further explored and language teachers will finally be given their due. I consider this thesis to be my contribution.

On an additional personal note, the start of my doctoral research coincided precisely with my relocation from Japan to Spain. Arriving in Madrid having had little formal instruction in Spanish, I found myself humbled by the limitations of my ability to communicate. On a near daily basis I was alternately delighted and frustrated by my quest to learn the language. In many ways, the PhD “journey” (for lack of a more original metaphor) has mirrored my Spanish language learning experience. My doctoral research has fortified and added texture to my language learning, and vice-versa. Furthermore, the process of learning a new language virtually from scratch as an adult, with all of its concomitant agony and ecstasy, has imbued my understanding of adult learners with greater sensitivity, empathy and personal insight.

1.2. Theoretical framework

The current study is interdisciplinary in that it “draws on different fields to answer questions, [which is] important because it seeks to transcend the limited scope offered by strictly disciplinary approaches” (Pun, 2019, p. 110). The research is broadly situated within a Positive Psychology framework, wherein positive emotions feature prominently, while negative emotions are still given due consideration. Positive Psychology puts the focus on human flourishing as opposed to suffering and pathology, and likewise, the current research sets out to explore how student perceptions of teacher emotions might promote positive feelings and bolster motivation in language learning. As the current research taps into a range of disciplines including psychology, SLA and education, it is necessary to establish both the epistemological standpoint of the researcher and the theoretical framework within which the study operates.

The backbone of the current research is the psychological aspect of the student/teacher relationship in language learning, not power structures within institutions and societies at large that dictate how teachers and students should feel and behave. It is acknowledged that said power structures probably do in fact influence the psychology of the student/teacher relationship, but it is not intended as the theoretical framework of the study. Rather, the theoretical framework of the current study borrows from the relational theory of psychology, which emphasizes the primacy of interpersonal relationships, stresses the role of those relationships as a key driver in motivation, and “views mind as fundamentally dyadic and interactive; above all else, mind seeks contact, engagement with other minds. Psychic organization and structures are built from the patterns which shape those

interactions” (Mitchell, 1988, p. 3). While relational theory has been most commonly applied to psychoanalysis and its clinical application, it is well suited to the current study in light of the bidirectional nature of the student/teacher relationship, motivation within the learning situation, and the effect of emotional contagion in the classroom. Mitchell (1988) also confirms that “the relational model is by no means the exclusive province of psychoanalytic theorizing” (p. 17).

Methodologically, although there is a supplementary qualitative component, which will be discussed at greater length in the Methodology chapter, this study employs quantitative methods to look at patterns and significant connections. The research paradigm is thus positivist in that it employs a primarily quantitative approach to answering the research questions, “objectively test[ing] a hypothesis using scientific method and/or logic to prove [them] to be true.” (Rose & McKinley, 2017, p.3)

While the work of Benesch (2018, 2019) is cited often for its invaluable contribution to the understanding of emotion labor, the current study will not assume a critical approach for several key reasons. Benesch frames her research in terms of power; who is allowed to feel, and what they should feel (Benesch, 2019). Undoubtedly these are important questions to explore with great potential for social justice activism and progress, however they would be best suited to a longitudinal study within an institution, as opposed to the cross-sectional design and snowball sampling method used by the current study for data collection. The theoretical framework of the current study diverges from Benesch’s in that the focus is on the interpersonal relationship between the student and teacher, and not the power

structures that undergird the feeling rules that dictate how teachers should feel and behave.

This study therefore avoids explicit emphasis on social justice since the nature of the questions being explored and the data collected do not take into account social and political factors affecting teachers. It would be difficult to explore power structures and make suggestions for social change for teachers within the boundaries of the current study since little is known about individual teachers involved in this study (including demographic information) and the particulars of their teaching situations. Furthermore, this is a study of student perception of teachers, focusing on the interpersonal relationship between teachers and students through a quantitative lens. Essentially, a social justice approach might suggest some change to the status quo, which would be a worthwhile future study, but the current study is neither designed nor intended to tackle such issues. Despite this, the researcher has an implicit interest in further exploring questions of social justice as they relate to language learning and teaching. This interest was borne of personal experience in the profession, and the acknowledgement that teacher happiness is important not only for teacher wellbeing, but for its positive effects on students. Hence, the theme of social justice is not dealt with explicitly, though is applicable indirectly to this thesis through the tenets of Positive Psychology, which assert the importance of both teachers and students thriving.

The researcher's ontology is based on the principles of relational psychology, which posit that all human beings are bound by relatedness and human relationships are not only the central aspect of the psyche, but the main driver of motivation (Greenberg & Mitchell, 1983). Moreover, behavior, attitudes and

motivation can only be understood in the context of relatedness. By logical extension, the student/teacher relationship plays an essential role in language learning and it is the researcher's core belief that the language learning process is necessarily embedded within a relational matrix (Mitchell, 1988), in which the student/teacher relationship features most prominently.

The researcher's epistemology is positivist, as the researcher maintains the role of an objective observer, relying primarily on the collection and analysis of quantitative data to test hypotheses (Creswell & Plano, 2011). The researcher's approach is primarily etic, with a light emic touch, as reflected in the supplementary qualitative data.

1.3. Notes on the study's methodology

There is acceptance -if not expectation- among researchers that real world issues often complicate data collection, particularly in educational contexts (McArthur, 2012). Such 'messiness' usually involves a human factor, and as Rose and McKinley (2017) have pointed out, "applied linguistics and educational researchers also often deal with people, which can be the messiest part of real world research" (p. 4). Nevertheless, the authors make the case that researchers need not be ashamed of such messiness, and should admit it openly and appreciate its potential value as a lesson learned to future researchers. They argue that "honesty in incorporating mess as a part of rigorous practice be extended beyond just action research, as it is an integral part of social science research in general thus also extending to much applied linguistics research" (p. 7).

In the current study, such real-life messiness threw an unforeseen spoke into the wheel of the study's plan to use a mixed-methods approach. Originally, equal

weight was intended to be given to the quantitative and qualitative components, though it turned out that the qualitative data was too limited to warrant the label of a true mixed-methods study. Part of this is explained by the researcher's over-optimism in trusting that respondents who volunteered to participate to answer open-ended questions at a later date would indeed come through. When the data collection was finished and the qualitative yield was remarkably slimmer than anticipated, the so-called messy human factor was laid palpably bare. An important takeaway for future researchers from this missed opportunity is the imperative of triangulation, as well as the technical importance of making open-ended questions a mandatory section in online questionnaires.

However, despite this unplanned shift, there are indeed several important methodological contributions that should be noted in the present study. First, the use of an observer-reported TEIQue test has never been done in the context of a language classroom, and it is the researcher's hope that others will see the potential value in administering such a test and perhaps follow suit.

Another notable contribution is the quantitative nature of the study in general. Exploring emotions through quantitative means can offer the researcher a certain objective distance, and most existing studies that deal with teacher TEI tend to rely heavily on qualitative methods such as interviews and self-reflections. The current research is an attempt to quantify teacher emotion as it appears through the filter of student perception, for the purpose of exploring cause and effect in student attitudes towards language learning. In doing so quantitatively, certain patterns can be visualized and connections can be made that might not be as salient if explored through qualitative means.

1.3.1. Implications of the methodological shift of the current study

Although limited in breadth, the qualitative data that was collected provided a fascinating glimpse into the minds of a handful of participants, and therefore the decision was made to include it in the final analysis. The unexpected shift from mixed-method to quantitative had several key implications for this research. For one, the qualitative component was treated like a precious gem, carefully handled and examined from different angles under the light, ultimately functioning like an adornment to the heavier quantitative machinery of the study.

From a broader perspective, the unexpected shift underscores the notion of 'messy data' and forces an acceptance of human foibles, both the subjects' and the researcher's. Having hopes for a substantial qualitative analysis unceremoniously dashed confirms the messiness of dealing with human subjects, a reality which sometimes gets overlooked when analyzing quantitative data.

Finally, this unforeseen change in methodology raises important questions about the self-selection bias and how it might be better controlled in the future. From the beginning, it was known that self-selection biases are often unavoidable in non-mandatory surveys. However, since the follow-up questions in the current study were, in a sense, even more optional than the questionnaire, the pool of willing respondents was whittled down to the most self-selected, absolute cream of the crop. This realization forced the researcher to approach the qualitative data with an especially critical eye, aware that responses may be representative of the most positive of the already positive.

1.4. Background and rationale

Past SLA research has focused heavily on the learner with little attention paid to the teacher. The endemic learner-centered focus has effectively siphoned much needed attention from research on teachers, resulting in a surfeit of literature on learners and much less on language teachers (Gkonou, Dewaele & King, 2020; Mercer & Kostoulas, 2018; Mercer & Gregersen, 2020; Williams, Mercer, & Ryan 2015). One positive aspect of this trend, which has been due in large part to preferences for student-centered approaches (Mercer & Kostoulas, 2018) is an expansive and valuable body of work on various learner-centered aspects such as individual differences (Dewaele, 2009; Dewaele, 2012; Schumann, 2013, Skehan, 1991), personality (Dewaele, 2012; Oxford, 1996) and motivation (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998).

To be sure, research on the psychology of the language learner is well-meaning, entirely logical and absolutely crucial. However, such an argument can also be made for research on the teacher, who is vital to the learning process. As Dewaele, Gkonou and Mercer put it, “reflecting on how interconnected teacher and learner psychologies are (Mercer 2016), it is surprising to note how little attention is paid to the teachers themselves in language learning psychology research, especially compared to the depth and breadth of work on learners (Dewaele 2017a; Mercer et al. 2016; Mercer 2016; Mercer & Kostoulas, 2018)” (Dewaele, Gkonou & Mercer, 2018: 2).

Fortunately, the trend has been shifting as more and more researchers recognize the bidirectional nature of the student-teacher relationship and therefore, the fallacy of focusing squarely on learners and overlooking teachers. In light of

both past research trends and the current research zeitgeist, the novelty of this thesis is its unique positioning as an exploration of teacher psychology as it is filtered through the lens of student understanding. The aim of this project is to explore how language students perceive teacher emotions and how those perceptions help construct students' own learning experiences.

1.5. Original contribution

In a sense, this thesis is ambitious in that it does the unthinkable, yet the unthinkableably simple: it asks students to consider their language teachers as human beings. In order to do so, students were asked questions about their teachers which transcend the professional and go straight to the heart of the personal: how they perceive their teachers' emotional state, how they imagine their teacher might conduct themselves in their personal relationships, and what they think about their teacher's own self image. In addition to answering questions about their impressions of teachers' private lives, students are also asked to consider their teachers' positions on broader human existential questions, such as if their teacher believes the world is inherently a good place, if they seem to derive meaning from their personal achievements, and if they appear to find beauty in things generally.

The student/teacher relationship is usually site and situation specific, bearing its own central, defining elements of limitation and as a result, most students are not privy to personal information about their teachers. Nonetheless, while the relationship dictates certain precepts and social codes, it remains tacitly clear that plenty of assumptions are at play. Moreover, due to the power differential which looms large, even adult students frequently try to propitiate their foreign language teachers, and rarely feel complete freedom to express their opinions in an

aboveboard fashion. One goal of this research project is to collapse this distance and dissolve this unspoken barrier as much as possible, thereby giving students an opportunity to voice that which usually remains silent, yet is vitally important.

Expressed or not, students carry a multitude of opinions, thoughts, vague hunches and bold guesses about who their teachers are and how they comport themselves in their private lives and the outside world. Dewaele (2011) and Sime (2016) both theorized that the classroom atmosphere is strongly influenced by the teacher whose verbal and nonverbal cues shape students' perception of them from the beginning. This study will attempt to gain insight into students' impressions of their teachers' emotional lives. As students often don't see teachers in their private lives, this research project asks them to make assumptions based on their impressions and in doing so, to take a leap of imagination. It should go without saying (however let it be hereby stated explicitly) that in asking students their personal thoughts about their teachers, the researcher has no intention of flouting the orthodoxy of the student/teacher relationship in any way. Boundaries of propriety are respected and classroom protocol and the boundaries therein are fully complied with, giving due regard to the privacy of both teachers and students.

In presenting this research project in its incipient stages at workshops and conferences, one issue has come up repeatedly: an insistence that teachers own self-reported trait emotional intelligence and happiness should also be tested in order to compare their scores with student perceptions. This rather half-baked suggestion has been so gamely expressed by audience members, and with such certitude, that it deserves a pre-emptive response here. While teacher self-reported TEI and happiness scores would be interesting, they are simply not relevant to this

particular research project. Not only would such testing be unfeasible in a cross-sectional study based on snowball sampling, the data it would yield would be superfluous and would not help answer the research questions, which will be presented in Chapter 2. Worse, such data collection could shift the focus of the topic, which is student *perceptions* of language teacher EI and happiness and their effects on student attitudes and motivation. Still, I contend that exploring the link between student perception of teacher emotion and teachers' perceptions of their own emotions would be an interesting undertaking, helping to shed light on a different set of issues and questions.

1.6. Brief overview of the topic

1.6.1. Student/teacher relationship

In considering why to study the topic of the student/teacher relationship, the question almost turns on itself reflexively: why *not* study the topic? Considering that it is one of the most central factors in determining learner outcomes (Hattie, 2009; Hughes, Luo, Kwok, & Lloyd, 2008; Klem & Connell, 2004; Wu, Hughes, & Kwok, 2010), it often feels like the proverbial elephant in the room. Both students and teachers know at least on some level that their interpersonal relationships with each other will perforce have an influence on the learning process. And indeed this intuition bears out in reality: in a meta study of 150 effects most influential to student achievement, Hattie (2009) ranked the student/teacher relationship even higher than teacher training and teacher subject matter knowledge (p. 102).

The student/teacher relationship requires a certain amount of objective distance on the part of the teacher (and possibly the student as well), and this distance is upheld by students in their deferral to teachers. However despite this

remove, the relationship is social and emotional by nature (Van Manen, 2017) and teachers and students undoubtedly have an emotional investment in each other:

Teaching has been ranked as one of the highest in stress-related outcomes from a database of 26 occupations, and the emotional involvement of teachers with their students is considered the primary explanation for such findings (Johnson *et al.* 2005). It seems obvious that the formation of personal, supportive teacher-student relationships inherently demands emotional involvement from teachers. For students, it is evident that the affective quality of the teacher-student relationship is an important factor in their school engagement, wellbeing, and academic success (Spilt, Koomen, & Thijs, 2011: 458)

The effects of the student/teacher relationship have been studied extensively in children and young adolescents with results generally showing that in a wide range of circumstances, greater solicitude on the part of the teacher occasions more favorable learning outcomes for the student (Ang, 2005; Hughes, 2011; Košir, & Tement, 2014; Meehan, Hughes, & Cavell, 2003). However, there remains a dearth of literature on the student/teacher relationship between adult learners and their teachers, particularly in the context of the foreign language classroom. This paucity is all the more glaring and oddly ironic given the multitude of social, personal, and emotional mechanisms that come into play in foreign language learning.

There is a strong argument to be made that exploring how adult students perceive language teachers is an important area of inquiry, adducing the fact that student perceptions are a strong factor in determining learning outcome, perhaps even more influential on learning than teachers' intentions (Fraser, 1998; Shuell, 1996; Shulman, 1986). Furthermore, the importance of student perceptions is particularly pertinent to the language classroom, where learning is often facilitated by learners' positive attitudes about their teacher (Dewaele et al., 2019; Gardner, 2010). Studying teacher psychology, and moreover, teacher psychology as it is

apprehended from the student point of view, is vital to understanding the learning process as teachers themselves are often the defining variable in classroom language learning (Mercer & Kostoulas, 2018).

Both consciously and unconsciously, teachers often craft a classroom persona, selecting which of their personal traits to reveal, exaggerate, or conversely, play down or conceal completely (King, 2016). Foreign language teachers, like most teachers, are usually aware that they must monitor their own emotions and those of their students by sidestepping sensitive topics in the classroom and keeping the more personal aspects of their own lives carefully cordoned off from student view. In doing so, teachers can become almost like caricatures of themselves and often report feeling more like performers than educators (Beadle, 2009; Lamb, 2017). Because of the social parameters of the student/teacher relationship, emotions are often not expressed openly, however, emotion does have an impact on teacher behavior and learner outcomes (Keller et al., 2014).

Like all human relationships, the student-teacher relationship can be fraught and student perceptions, as anyone's, can be fickle. Even within the space of short time periods, student opinions of teachers can be subject to extreme vacillation, swayed by a multitude of factors such as current mood, experiential and cognitive biases, even a passing ideological or religious comment by the teacher, an expressed preference for a sports team that does not match the majority of the students, and practical aspects like unexpectedly low test scores or poor grades. To put it more directly, student perceptions of teachers can be downright contradictory and idiosyncratic. This thesis does not make an argument to the contrary. The point

of this study is not to see if student perceptions of teachers correspond to some sort of objective reality; indeed, students' perceptions *are* their reality. Instead, the purpose is to explore how students' assumptions affect the learning process in the language classroom, and to attempt to suggest practical implications for language learning and teaching.

1.6.2. Positive psychology (PP) and second language acquisition (SLA)

The field of psychology has traditionally focused on pathology and trying to understand what's wrong with human beings. Similarly, with the exception of some rather recent notable contributions on positive emotions in language learning (Dewaele, 2011, 2018; Dewaele & Dewaele, 2017; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Dewaele et al., 2017; Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014; MacIntyre et al., 2019), past SLA research has tended to focus primarily on foreign language anxiety (Gkonou et al., 2017), or to simply avoid the messy topic of emotion altogether.

Positive Psychology has shifted the focus to what's *right* with human beings, how they can flourish, and how they might attain a sense of meaning (Seligman, 2002). Positive Psychology is gaining ascendancy in SLA research (Dewaele, Padilla & Lake, 2019; Dewaele & Li, 2020; MacIntyre & Mercer, 2014) as more researchers are beginning to consider positive emotion in the classroom and the learning process in general. This thesis operates within the framework of PP, exploring such variables as teacher happiness and student positive feelings while also considering the important factor of foreign language anxiety.

1.6.3. Emotion and foreign language learning

As previously stated, research on emotion as it pertains to foreign language learning has been relatively scant, with the exception of the emotion of anxiety

(Scovel, 1978; Horwitz & Cope, 1986). Only relatively recently have positive feelings such as enjoyment been given attention, as there is a greater recognition that positive feelings enhance learning by maximizing awareness and attention paid to input (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012). Positive emotions in the classroom are also tied to a sense of humor and playfulness, which in effect encourage exploration and increase learner resilience (Dewaele, Witney, Saito & Dewaele, 2018).

In their 2014 study of foreign language enjoyment (FLE) and foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA), Dewaele and MacIntyre found that enjoyment and anxiety were essentially two independent dimensions, with a moderate negative relationship, and that high enjoyment and low anxiety were linked with higher levels of self-perceived proficiency in the target language. This finding affirmed MacIntyre and Gregersen's earlier assertion that the interplay of positive and negative emotions could serve as an invigorating force in language learning (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012). The teacher maintains a crucial role in regulating the emotional thermostat of the classroom, and indeed teachers have a strong effect on student emotion, particularly enjoyment (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Dewaele, Magdalena Franco & Saito, 2019; Dewaele, 2021). This thesis will explore teacher emotion as perceived by students and its relation to self-reported student emotion.

1.6.4. Trait emotional intelligence (TEI)

Emotional intelligence (EI) can be understood either as a social knowledge (Bar-On, 1997), an ability to accurately identify and manage one's own emotions and the emotions of others (Goleman, 1995) or as a relatively stable lower-order personality trait (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000). The latter perspective was chosen, considering Trait Emotional Intelligence (TEI) as personality-related,

pertaining to the behavior of an individual and their ability to effectively identify and understand the emotions of themselves and others. Moreover, TEI deals with how well and how appropriately an individual can cope with their own emotions and the emotions of others, exercising appropriate self-control over their own emotions (Petrides & Furnham, 2000, 2001). In measuring TEI, Petrides et al. (2007) outline four key domains to determine how people deal with their own emotional competences: wellbeing, self-control, emotionality and sociability. While TEI scores generally rely on self-reported survey answers, this thesis deals with how students perceive their teachers' emotional intelligence so an observer-reported TEI test was utilized for students to assess their teachers' TEI. In chapter 2, TEI will be discussed in greater theoretical detail, as well as the background and rationale for using an observer-reported TEI test.

1.6.5. Happiness

The concept of happiness, in fact the very word itself, is richly loaded and invites all manner of personal projection and philosophical interpretation. Therefore, it is necessary to define happiness as it relates to this thesis. As viewed through the lens of PP, Seligman (2002) posits that there are different types and degrees of happiness and that being happy is not an all or nothing state (Ben-Shahar, 2002). Happiness as it pertains to the theoretical framework of this thesis and as it is reflected in the research instrument (which will be discussed further in chapter 2) regards a happy teacher as one who seems to generally enjoy life and derive a sense of purpose or meaning from teaching.

This thesis is concerned specifically with teacher happiness as perceived by students. While the happiness of teachers is important for its own sake (De Costa,

Li & Rawal, 2019; Mercer, Oberdorfer & Saleem, 2016; Mercer & Kostoulas, 2018; Mercer & Gregersen, 2020) in the reciprocal student-teacher relationship, teacher happiness is immensely significant as it relates to the language learner. Past research has demonstrated a link between teacher happiness and quality of teaching, which ultimately affects student performance (Bajorek et al., 2014; Caprara et al., 2006; Day & Gu, 2009; Klusmann et al., 2008).

1.7. Organization of this thesis

This thesis consists of six chapters. The current introductory chapter includes a personal statement to explain the researcher's motivation for this study and aims to introduce the topic and offer a rationale for the study by contextualizing the research and showing where extant research falls short, and how the current study aims to fill the gap.

This chapter also includes a brief overview of the topics to be covered.

Chapter 2 presents an in-depth review of literature pertaining to this thesis, as well as the research questions the thesis will attempt to answer and the hypotheses based on the literature review. This study sits at the interface of psychology and applied linguistics, and relevant research in both disciplines will be presented and synthesized. To date, research on the student/teacher relationship has relied heavily on data from primary and secondary students in subjects other than foreign language study. The topic of happiness encompasses a vast and expansive body of thought and research, however happiness perception of others remains surprisingly underexplored. Literature on perceptions of teacher happiness is scant, and such research in the context of the FL classroom is even more lacking. However, happiness and TEI share a considerable overlap. The present study relies

on two different constructs to measure the two, and both will be presented and discussed in detail.

Chapter 3 offers a detailed description of the methodology used for the study to answer the research questions. This chapter provides a theoretical framework and detailed explanation of the research instrument used to collect data and a justification of the chosen constructs. The reasons why similar, alternative constructs were not chosen will also be discussed. The first part of the data collection used an online questionnaire, which will be described in detail, and is provided in its full form in the appendix. The additional open-ended follow-up questions will be described and justified as well. Detailed information about the study participants will be provided, for both the quantitative section and the qualitative section.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the data collection. This thesis is based primarily on a quantitative study, with some qualitative data to complement the main quantitative findings. As such, all findings are presented in one chapter and will be connected and summed up at the end of the chapter. Statistical analyses will be used to answer the research questions about students' perceptions of their teachers' emotions, as well as to look at learner-internal variables and differences between groups of respondents. The quantitative section looks for evidence of predetermined themes in the responses and offers a glimpse into the minds of the respondents by providing their own words, with relevant commentary and analysis.

Chapter 5 provides a detailed discussion of the research findings in relation to the research questions. Hypotheses will be examined and determined to be either proven or disproven. Any results that are ambiguous or inconclusive will be

discussed in detail. This chapter also offers pedagogical implications based on the major findings.

Chapter 6 provides a conclusion. The study's main findings will be summarized, and limitations of the study will be presented and discussed. This chapter also presents implications of the study and proposes directions for future research.

Chapter 2. Literature review

The fulcrum of this thesis is the student-teacher relationship which is not only highly influential in student outcome (Hattie, 2009; Spilt et al., 2011) but also a social and emotional relationship by its nature (Dewaele, Magdalena Franco & Saito, 2019; Gkonou & Mercer, 2017; Van Manen, 2017). This chapter will introduce the literature dealing with emotional aspects of language learning and teaching. First, the literature on PP will be reviewed, as it provides the theoretical framework within which this thesis operates. Then the pertinent literature on emotional intelligence, emotion in foreign language learning and the influence of the student-teacher relationship will be reviewed. The literature on happiness will be explored next, focusing on teacher happiness, since it is a key component of this thesis and research has shown that teacher happiness and student happiness are interrelated (Bajorek et al., 2014; Caprara et al., 2006; Day & Gu, 2009; Klusmann et al., 2008). This chapter will conclude with the research questions and their hypotheses which are based on the reviewed literature.

2.1. Positive psychology (PP) background

Distinct from the popular self-help notion of the power of positive thinking, positive psychology (PP), which was first named as a field of inquiry in 1998 by Seligman, affirms that we can measure wellbeing and actively build it by identifying that which brings meaning to life and helps them to find personal fulfillment and satisfaction. Unlike traditional psychology which has focused heavily on pathologies such as anxiety, depression and general human misery, how to measure them, and how to undo them, PP focuses squarely on mental health

rather than mental illness. To put it in other words, while psychology has largely been concerned with what's wrong with human beings, PP has shifted the focus to what's right with human beings, how they can flourish, and how they might attain a sense of meaning and happiness (Seligman, 2002).

2.1.1. Positive psychology and second language acquisition

In the current state of SLA research, anxiety has been investigated broadly (Gkonou et al., 2017), but the study of positive emotions is still being developed. The understanding that “there is good reason to believe that studying positive emotion in greater detail will produce a novel understanding of the processes involved” (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014: 240), is reflected in the increased focus on research on PP and positive emotions in the learning process (MacIntyre et al., 2016; MacIntyre & Mercer, 2014). In a paper detailing the history of PP in foreign language teaching and SLA research, Dewaele, Chen, Padilla and Lake (2019) state that “from 2016, the epistemological and methodological range of PP research in applied linguistics and TESOL expanded rapidly and further connections were established with existing concepts and theories on motivation. New dependent and independent variables were included in research designs.” (p. 5). The authors argue that while the initial spark of interest in PP in the field of applied linguistics began in 2012 with Gregersen and MacIntyre's work, the current period of research did not truly begin in earnest until 2016 with the steady publication of some mainstream notable works in the area (MacIntyre, Gregersen & Mercer, 2016; Gabryś-Barker & Gałajda, 2016). Oxford (2016a, 2016b) looked at PP in relation to L2 learning, with a specific focus on learner wellbeing. She

proposed a theoretic model called 'EMPATHICS' which consisted of nine dimensions. The first dimension of "E" includes aspects of learner emotions, including emotional intelligence, which she considers to be fundamental to the learning process:

- E- emotion and empathy
- M- meaning and motivation
- P- perseverance, including resilience, hope and optimism
- A- agency and autonomy
- T- time
- H- hardiness and habits of mind
- I – intelligences
- C – character strengths
- S – self-factors (self-efficacy, self-concept, self-esteem, self-verification)

(Oxford, 2016a: 10)

Mercer (2017) argues that the tenets of PP can be applicable and greatly beneficial not only for language learners but for teachers as well, by promoting a sense of wellbeing, generating new ideas and facilitating more dynamic and elastic modes of thinking. Indeed, positive teacher emotion has been shown to be connected to effective teaching strategies and creativity (Dewaele, Gkonou & Mercer, 2018; Pekrun et al., 2002; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003), which accords with Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) notion that happiness and creativity are intertwined, a concept that will be elaborated upon in the Happiness section of this chapter.

2.1.2. Criticism of PP

One key debate with PP has been the argument against the 'critical positivity ratio' originally coined by Fredrickson and Losada (2005), which was put forth as an exact ratio of positivity to negativity which they contended could serve to separate those who flourish from those who languish. Brown et al. (2013) first questioned the mathematical plausibility of the critical positivity ratio, concluding

that there was no sound evidence for its validity. This led to a crisis of relevance for PP, with detractors arguing that papers submitted dealing with Positive Psychology hadn't been analyzed rigorously enough in the peer review process. In response to Brown et al.'s (2013) critique, Fredrickson (2013) published a paper in which she acknowledged that she has "come to see sufficient reason to question the particular mathematical framework Losada and I adopted to represent and test the concept of a critical tipping point positivity ratio that bifurcates mental health into human flourishing and human languishing" (Fredrickson, 2013: 814), but she nevertheless defends the theoretical framework of the ratio, affirming that positivity is crucial up to a certain point, and likewise, negativity is crucial down to a certain point, depending on complex factors and context-dependent variables.

Another key criticism of PP is what detractors consider to be its sense of elitism, with the implication that its ulterior purpose is as a money-making scheme. Seligman's initial proposal of PP as a movement in 1998 invited wealthy donors and big names to form a hierarchical structure which some argue was self-serving and out of touch (Wong, 2011). Whether initially intended or not, the PP movement has also spawned a sub movement of pseudoscience, complete with quack practitioners, cheap watered-down popular psychology and superficial self-help books (Coyne, 2014). Furthermore, some researchers have also argued that the intense focus on positivity is simply unrealistic and incompatible with the nature of human existence (Ivtzan et al., 2016; Wong, 2011).

In what was essentially meant to be a criticism of PP, Wong and Roy (2017) posited that there are indeed upsides to negative aspects of emotion and that the

negatives and positives serve to effectively complement each other. Ironically, this criticism echoes a sentiment that is in fact affirmed by proponents of PP in the field of applied linguistics who argue that both positive and negative emotions can be beneficial in language learning (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014, 2016, 2019; MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012). In contrast to the aforementioned criticism of PP, many proponents of PP even believe that negative feelings are completely normal and their acceptance and acknowledgement are a necessary precursor to happiness (Ben-Shahar, 2002; Gilbert, 2006; Seligman, 2002).

2.2. Emotional intelligence

As considered separate from other intelligence domains, emotional intelligence (EI) is a social intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990), or a social knowledge of how people adapt and manage their social surroundings (Bar-On, 2006). "EI" was introduced into mainstream parlance by Daniel Goleman (1995) who defined it as the ability to recognize, understand and manage feelings in oneself and others. According to Goleman, EI is "as powerful and at times more powerful than IQ" (Goleman, 1995: 34). Whether to consider EI an ability or a trait has been debated (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000; Petrides, 2011), with proponents of the former asserting that EI is the "ability to carry out accurate reasoning about emotions and the ability to use emotions and emotional knowledge to enhance thought" (Mayer et al., 2008: 511), with emotion regulation as the master ability. The more integrative mixed model of EI considers it a combination of factors, intellectual, affective, and personality related (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). Petrides (2011) makes the point that the true difference between

ability EI and trait EI concerns the methods of measurement. “Two different EI constructs can be differentiated on the basis of the method of measurement used to operationalize them (self - report, as in personality questionnaires, or maximum performance, as in IQ tests” (Petrides, 2011: 657).

This thesis operates within the model of TEI, which is formally defined as a constellation of emotional perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies. It concerns people’s self-perceptions of their emotional abilities and an alternative label for it is trait emotional self-efficacy. Petrides (2017) explained that “Trait EI is currently the only definition that recognizes the inherent subjectivity of emotional experience. That the Trait EI facets are personality traits, as opposed to mental abilities or competencies, is also corroborated by research revealing that the same genes that are implicated in the development of individual differences in the Big Five personality traits are also implicated in the development of individual differences in Trait EI.” (p. 2). Essentially TEI deals with how people perceive their own emotional competences and their own inner landscapes, using four domains as defined by Petrides *et al.* (2007):

- wellbeing
- self-control
- emotionality
- sociability

It is difficult to know whether or not trait EI can be changed over time and if so, to what extent, however researchers theorize that TEI can indeed improve over time as people age and become better socialized (Costa et al. 2000;

Petrides, Furnham & Mavrovelli, 2008). Similarly, teachers particularly as they gain experience can learn to control and regulate their own emotions, thereby increasing the effectiveness of their practice (Sutton, 2004). In fact, Sutton et al. (2009) found that in a study of 400 junior high school teachers, 97% believed that their teaching practices would be improved by increasing positive emotions in themselves, and furthermore that the teachers actively already used strategies such as self-talk, deep breathing and visualization to control their own facial reactions in the classroom.

2.2.1. TEI and personality

The term “personality” is not used explicitly in regard to students’ perceptions of teacher characteristics, however TEI considers emotional intelligence as a personality trait, so it is indeed addressed through that prism. This terminological choice was made taking into account that the use of the word “personality” might intimate the Five Factor model (i.e.: openness, conscientiousness, extraversion/introversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism) (Goldberg, 1981; McCrae & Costa, 1987; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Pervin & Cervone, 2010), which is not assessed directly in the current study. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that Alegre et al. (2019) posit that measuring TEI is another way to measure the Big Five personality factors, and it has been suggested that there exists a relationship between TEI and the Big Five, particularly with regard to neuroticism and extroversion (Saklofske et al., 2003; Vernon et al., 2008; Siegling et al., 2015).

Beyond descriptive personality traits, the current study is concerned with how students perceive such factors as teachers' coping strategies and life satisfaction, which is more accurately measured through TEI testing (Petrides et al., 2007) and TEI overlaps with both intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence (Gardner, 1983). As this study deals with the interpersonal and interactional nature of the student/teacher relationship, exploring teacher TEI was a more appropriate framework to attempt to quantify the student/teacher dyad than simply measuring student perceptions of teacher personality traits alone.

2.2.2. Teacher TEI and classroom behavior

As goes without saying, it is impossible to delve completely into the mind of another human being, however it is reasonable to assume that one's behavior is strongly suggestive of one's beliefs, and in the context of the language classroom, language teachers' practices are indeed directly linked to their thoughts and beliefs (Borg, 2003, 2006). Additionally, other people's emotions may provide information used to establish one's own beliefs and attitudes about something (Van Kleef et al., 2015).

Student perception of how teachers behave has a significant relation to student outcome (Clark et al., 1976). According to Dewaele (2011, 2020) and Sime (2016), students actively form opinions of their teachers based on the teachers' verbal and nonverbal cues, and the overall ambience of the classroom is highly influenced by teacher behavior. There is little doubt that students are acutely aware of teacher emotions both negative and positive (Sime, 2006; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003), therefore teacher TEI is an important factor in the learning equation

because teachers' emotions relate to their own thinking and classroom behavior and, in turn, influence students (Sutton, 2005). To put it in other words, teacher behavior significantly affects student outcome and "student perceptions of teacher behavior can have an important influence on causal relationships in the classroom." (Clark et al., 1976: 30). Teacher TEI as manifest in their classroom behavior may also have a positive effect on student achievement by strengthening the students' own self-perception of aptitude and ability (Hughes, 2011; Curci et al, 2014).

It is of interest to note that general EI encompasses not just emotion regulation in oneself, but emotion recognition and regulation in others (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). This is of importance considering the bidirectional nature of the student/teacher relationship and furthermore, the social nature of language learning. It is not just students reading teachers, but teachers picking up emotional signals from their students. In fact, there is emerging research on the ability of teachers to recognize nonverbal cues of anxiety by language learners. (Gregersen, 2005, 2007, 2009, Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2017; Maher & King, 2020).

Teachers assume many roles in the classroom: managers, purveyors of knowledge, lead motivators, facilitators, friends, parental figures, or any combination thereof. Perhaps most importantly, they establish the atmosphere of the classroom and serve as social and behavioral models. Therefore, teacher EI is important considering that "socially and emotionally competent teachers set the tone of the classroom by developing supporting and encouraging relationships with their students...and acting as a role model for respectful and appropriate

communications and exhibitions of prosocial behavior” (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009: 492).

2.2.3. Gender differences

In terms of gender differences and EI, the findings of past research have been rather mixed. The ‘emotional sensitivity hypothesis’ posits that women are more likely than men to notice subtle or ambiguous emotional displays of others, however a study of 5,000 participants (Fischer et al., 2018) found contradictory evidence and little solid support for this hypothesis. Testing both self-reported EI and perceived emotion of others, the authors found that “men did score lower on self-perceived EI, which suggests that they think of themselves as less confident in perceiving, understanding and regulating emotions than did women. However, this did not affect the intensity ratings of target emotions. In other words, men and women’s self-perceived emotional intelligence is not a reliable predictor of rating the intensity of the intended emotion displays on the face” (Fischer et al., 2018: 14).

In self-reported tests of performance and intelligence, a significant male bias towards self-enhancement and female bias towards self-diminishment has emerged (Beyer, 1990; Furnham & Rawles, 1995). Schutte et al. (1998) found a significant gender difference in self-reported measures of TEI, however Petrides and Furnham (2000) found that there were generally no significant differences between males and females in total measured TEI, with the exception of the domain of “social skills,” with females self-reporting higher scores than males.

In a study of the effect of perceptions of teacher characteristics on enjoyment and anxiety of Spanish students of English, the researchers found that teacher gender was unrelated to student level of foreign language enjoyment (FLE) and foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) (Dewaele, Magdalena Franco & Saito, 2019), however, the effect of student gender was not tested. Previous research has shown a small gender effect on learners' classroom emotions, with female foreign language learners reporting both more anxiety and enjoyment (Dewaele, MacIntyre, Boudreau & Dewaele, 2016).

2.2.3.1. Issues surrounding gender research

It must be acknowledged that gender is often socially constructed differently across cultural contexts, with different norms and characteristics valued or frowned upon. For example, while one culture might appreciate loud, boisterous, emotionally expressive women, others might value more passive and submissive characteristics in women. Likewise, open displays of emotion, and particularly displays of vulnerability, might be more accepted (if not expected) from women, and discouraged in men. These complicating factors should be recognized when dealing with questions of emotion and FL learning and teaching, though are unfortunately all too often left out of the discussion of gender-based testing in Applied Linguistics research.

Some researchers have considered FL learning to be a stereotypically female endeavor (Piechurska-Kuciel, 2011) and some past research has tried to make the case that females experience significantly more enjoyment than their male counterparts (Radwan, 2014), and tend to be more socially oriented than males, who tend to be more instrumentally oriented (Daif-Allah, 2012). However, it is incumbent upon objective researchers to approach such studies, and the gender variable more broadly, with a cautious and critical eye. For example, Piechurska-

Kuciel (2011) posit that females tend to experience higher levels of foreign language anxiety than males do regardless of their proficiency level, which they theorize is due to females' general sensitivity toward stress. Upon delving deeper, a more critical explanation could be that females tend to be judged more harshly than males in general and are acutely aware of this unfair disparity, which causes them anxiety in FL learning contexts. Moreover, one could argue that it might not be the case the females have a predisposition to be more sensitive to stress, rather that females simply *have* more stress in male dominated cultures which treat them as second class citizens, and this stress invariably carries over into the FL classroom.

2.2.4. The TEIQue 360° Short Form

A strong argument can be made that impressions of the EI of others can be more accurately assessed by an observer than by self-reported testing, at least in the domains of EI that are the least private and the most salient. Despite the fact that impressions of others' emotions can be faulty and bias-prone (Kahneman, 2015), Cooper and Petrides (2010) have been critical of self-reported measures of EI as have other researchers, noting a strong general proclivity towards overestimating one's own positive traits and abilities (Chance et al., 2011). In fact, a good deal of solid research supports the validity and accuracy of observer-reported EI testing across various contexts (Furnham, 2008). Assessing oneself impartially may be difficult due to the all too human flaw of self-delusion, which has led researchers to argue that people are sometimes better judges of the EI of others than of their own (Furnham, Race & Rosen, 2014).

The TEIQue 360° Short Form was developed by Petrides and Furnham (2006) as a tool to measure TEI as perceived by an observer. The test has been shown to be particularly useful as a comparison between self and observer-reported TEI, especially in leadership roles. To date, the test has not been used

extensively in the classroom, however in a paper on TEI of ballet dancers and their teachers, Petrides, Niven and Mouskounti (2006) compared observer versus self-reported ratings and investigated the validity of the TEIQue and the TEIQue 360° Short Form tests in relatively small sample sizes (n= 34 ballet students, 5 ballet teachers).

The researchers first compared self ratings to observer ratings of ballet students and teachers, and then explored the relationship between TEI scores and ballet dancing. In the results of the study, the researchers found a high rate of self-other convergence, meaning that:

Ballet teacher ratings on the TEIQue 360° – SF showed high inter-rater reliabilities, which suggests that not only do lay people understand the nature of the trait EI facets, but they also agree when they rate others on them. Furthermore, teacher trait EI ratings converged with student trait EI scores, which supports the accuracy of emotion-related self-perceptions. In other words, it is clear that there is at least some convergence between self- and other-perceptions of emotion-related abilities as well as between self-perceptions and objective performance on affect-laden tasks” (Petrides, Niven & Mouskounti, 2006:104).

The authors provide evidence that “in relation to the operationalization of trait EI...the TEIQue provides complete and valid measurement of the construct. In stark contrast to ability EI tests, the TEIQue shows robust psychometric properties, even in small sample research” (Petrides, Niven & Mouskounti, 2006: 106).

2.3. Emotion and SLA

The foreign language classroom is an emotionally charged environment, yet with the exception of anxiety, which will be discussed later in this chapter, emotion has been largely neglected in SLA research. This general lack of emotion research can be attributed to the fact that emotions by nature are often variegated, complex

and may be paradoxical and inconsistent, which makes studying them particularly challenging. Dewaele (2005) argues that the lack of emotion research in SLA is due in part to methodological and epistemological obstacles, which he believes could be overcome with interdisciplinary and a more open-minded approach to research methods. Despite these limitations, and precisely because of the widespread acceptance of the crucial role in language learning, emotion research in applied linguistics has grown substantially in recent years (cf. Dewaele, 2019; Prior, 2019), with researchers arguing that emotion is simply too big a factor in language learning to be overlooked.

There has been a fair amount of research on “emotional contagion” in the classroom (Dimberg et al., 2000; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Hagenauer et al., 2015), a phenomenon generally defined as the process whereby either consciously or unconsciously, people’s emotions are linked or synchronized (Hatfield et al., 1993). Such research has traditionally not been concerned with the language learning classroom, however research on emotional contagion in the foreign language classroom has recently gained traction (Dewaele, 2017; Dewaele & Mercer, 2018). Additionally, the research that does exist has depended mainly on qualitative methods such as self-reflections and interviews.

In general, students and teachers have been shown to be linked emotionally, particularly in regard to happiness (Dresel & Hall, 2013; Frenzel & Stephens, 2013). In a study of teachers of math, Frenzel and Stephens (2013) found that those who enjoyed teaching were more enthusiastic in the classroom and felt more comfortable with the use of humor, which had a positive effect on

student emotion and motivation. This finding aligns with Seligman's (2013) assertion that happiness is indeed contagious, and Dewaele and MacIntyre's (2019) finding that happier language teachers might have the power to motivate students by making the classroom atmosphere more enjoyable.

2.3.1. Motivation

In the most general sense, motivation can be considered the reason, cause, or goal for a behavior or activity. In psychological literature, motivation has often been conceptualized as either intrinsic or extrinsic (Deci, 1971), meaning that the individual might be motivated by internal factors such as satisfaction or personal rewards which are independent of an outside source, or conversely, they may be motivated by either positive or negative external factors such as extrinsic pressure or rewards. In the context of education, early motivation research has demonstrated that intrinsic motivation tends to be more influential than extrinsic motivation, and that rewards that are tangible could even weaken intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1971, 1972; Kruglanski et al., 1971). What remains undisputed is the important role of motivation in learning across all ages and subject areas. In the context of foreign language learning, Dörnyei (2001) considers motivation to be the key factor in why learners begin to study a foreign language in the first place, the duration of their studies, and how much effort they will devote to their studies.

In a paper titled "The ten commandments for motivating language learners," Dörnyei and Csizér (1998) use an empirical study to outline key components of motivation in language learning. Their very first "commandment" for teachers is to "set a personal example with your own behavior" because "the most prominent

model in the classroom is the teacher: student attitudes and orientations are, to a large extent, modeled after their teachers both in terms of effort expenditure and orientations of interest in the subject” (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998: 14). This advice is affirmed in Jennings and Greenberg’s (2009) view on the importance of teacher emotional competence in the classroom and the importance of teachers setting examples of prosocial behavior in the classroom. Teachers carry both the burden and the power to motivate students and as Lamb (2017) states, “we now have sufficient research evidence to suggest that language teachers are able to influence their learners’ motivation, both for better and worse. This probably accords with the experiences of most teachers, who will have registered the impact of their work on their learners’ views and feelings about the subject” (Lamb, 2017: 2).

The research instrument of this thesis which will be discussed in Chapter 3 includes questions about the teacher’s sense of humor and willingness to laugh openly in the classroom. This is an important area of inquiry because humor can be a great motivator in the classroom, as it decreases anxiety by lowering the affective filter (Krashen, 1985), and has the power to “arouse and sustain curiosity and attention” (Dörnyei, 1994: 281) by fostering a positive group dynamic. Happier teachers might be more enthusiastic, more creative, love the target language more thereby increasing learners’ motivation (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2019). A happy teacher with a sense of humor can make “the L2 classroom a welcoming, positive place where psychological needs are met and where language anxiety is kept to a minimum” (Oxford & Shearin, 1994: 24) and how students regard their foreign

language teacher has been shown to be a significant predictor of their enjoyment in the classroom (Dewaele & Dewaele, 2017, 2020; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2017, Dewaele, Magdalena Franco & Saito, 2018) and their willingness to communicate (Dewaele & Dewaele, 2018; Dewaele, 2019).

Motivation is one of the key factors in predicting a language learner's success (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003) and "is one of the main determinants of second/foreign language (L2) learning achievement" (Dörnyei, 1994: 273), yet it often feels like a slippery concept that is difficult to pin down. Gardner has defined motivation as "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes towards learning the language " (Gardner, 1985: 10).

Gardner and Lambert (1972) posited that a drive for social identification is an important aspect of motivation in L2 learning. And this need could be applied not only to other individuals, but also to other ethno linguistic communities with whom the learner seeks social identification. As a social psychologist, Gardner was primarily interested in the learners' attitudes toward the language and its speakers as key motivating factors in language learning. In 1979, Gardner put forth his viewpoint that the learning of a second or foreign language could be understood as a social process as opposed to merely an educational one, and in 1985, the *Attitude and Motivation Test Battery* (AMTB) was born.

2.3.1.1 AMTB

The AMTB was created to assess the affective variables involved in language learning, originally meant for English-speaking students of French in the

Canadian context (Gardner, 1985). Over the succeeding years, the test has proved to be extremely useful and transferable to many different contexts because its form can be changed depending on the researcher's intended purpose. Based on the socio-educational model, Gardner's approach to motivation took into account various dimensions of language learning, including the psychological, social, and political (Gardner, 2010b), though an argument has been made that the model does not adequately address societal and political forces in language learning (Gu, 2009; Kumaravadivelu, 2006).

The socio-educational model constitutes three main components: attitude towards the learning situation, integrativeness, and motivation (Gardner, 2005). The AMTB includes the factor of anxiety (FL use anxiety, FL classroom anxiety), but it also measures more positive affective factors such as interest in the FL and desire to learn.

Responses are measured on a seven-point Likert scale, ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*, with the following original subsections:

- 1) Integrativeness - looks at the cultural context of the L2, measures how open the learner is to users and community of L2 speakers, desire to interact with speakers of the L2 and to be like them. Looks at social and cultural reasons learner has for studying L2. Gardner (1985) defined integrativeness as consisting of three parts: integrative orientation, attitudes toward the target language group, and overall interest in foreign languages.

- 2) Attitude toward learning situation- meant to assess learner attitude toward the specific context of their learning situation; the teacher, the class
- 3) Motivation- measures the desire to learn and affective variables that relate to integrativeness and attitude toward learning situation. Gardner's (1985) conceived of motivation as the "desire to achieve a goal, effort expended, and the pleasure associated with a task and all three components must be present for an individual to be motivated (Esses & Gardner, 1996; MacIntyre, Dewaele, Macmillan & Li, 2019)
- 4) Anxiety- measures the learner's level of anxiety in using the L2 both inside and outside the classroom. As measured in the AMTB, anxiety is specific to the context of the foreign language.

As the research instrument of this thesis is derived from an adapted form of the AMTB test, student attitude and motivation are understood through the framework of Gardner's socio-educational model, which posits "the idea that languages are unlike any other subject taught in a classroom in that they involve the acquisition of skills or behavior patterns which are characteristic of another cultural community" (Gardner, 1985: 146) and therefore, L2 learning is profoundly influenced by "the individual's attitudes toward the other community [and its] beliefs" (Gardner, 1985: 146).

The socio-educational model takes into account learning in both formal and informal contexts (Gardner, 2010a) and self-identity is not explicitly identified. As such, the model was deemed a good fit for adult learning in a classroom setting,

while also taking into account learning in natural settings. Given the student/teacher relationship as the focal point of this thesis, the AMTB was chosen because it includes a section on attitudes towards the learning situation, which explicitly asks questions about attitude towards the teacher. Despite criticism of the construct, which will be discussed in the following subsection, the AMTB is often praised for taking into account the dynamic nature of language learning:

That is, the experiences gained by learners in formal or informal settings affect attitude which in turn affects motivation, which itself in an endless cyclical process affects continued experience in those settings. Therefore, this model takes the true dynamic nature of learning into account and allows for the inevitable variability of the interlanguage, and as such the model is considered to be (more) realistic than other methods (Taie & Afshari, 2015: 610).

In seeking to explore the link between the AMTB and learner emotions, MacIntyre, Dewaele, Macmillan and Li, 2019 set out to explore correlations between the scales of the AMTB and the positive and negative emotions scale (PANAS). They conducted and compared two separate studies: the first was done on 157 Chinese EFL learners in China, and the second involved an online survey of 750 international learners. In both studies, their results showed notable consistent correlations between the scales of the AMTB and the individual learner emotions. Based on their findings, they concluded that “the socio-educational model emphasizes attitudes as a driving force in the motivation system. The present data suggest emotion processes may underlie the attitudes that support motivation for language learning” (p. 39).

2.3.1. Criticism of AMTB

Dörnyei (2005) has been one of the most vocal critics of the AMTB, arguing that his L2 Motivational Self System is a better construct for measuring motivation. One key criticism is that the AMTB has remained more or less unmodified over time, without adapting to changes in research that have taken place in psychology with regard to motivation (Taie & Afshari, 2015). For that reason, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) posit that the L2 Motivational Self System is a better predictor of learner outcome than Gardner's construct. In response, Gardner has affirmed that "revolutions in psychology come and go" (Gardner, 2010a; 203) but that his construct indeed remains relevant.

The AMTB's *Integrativeness* component considers cultural aspects of language learning, because "the motivational component is influenced to some extent by factors that affect an individual's willingness to accept 'foreign' behavior patterns" (Gardner & Lalonde, 1985: 1). The concept of *Integrativeness* has been criticized and is often compared to the Ideal L2 Self, Dörnyei (2019b) arguing that the latter is a more thorough construct and that "extensive subsequent testing of this hypothesis confirmed that the two concepts were indeed interrelated and that the Ideal L2 Self appeared to do a better job at accounting for variance in different criterion measures than integrativeness" (Dörnyei, 2019b: 21).

Another key criticism of the AMTB is that it focuses on the individual learner, while overlooking the societal factors which are influential in language learning (Gu, 2009) and Kumaravadivelu's (2006) notion of "language as ideology," meaning

“issues of how the social and political forces of power and domination impact on language structures and language use” (Kumaravadivelu, 2006: 24).

Despite criticism of Gardner’s model, instruments based on the original AMTB continue to be widely used due to the high rate of reliability and flexibility of the original construct. In the manual for the original AMTB, Gardner acknowledged the potential need for future researchers to tweak and modify the test to fit their purposes, noting that:

Changing the setting, the language or the general socio-cultural milieu in which the language programme exists might necessitate major changes in the items to make them meaningful and relevant. At least, researchers should be concerned with the issues involved in transporting items to other contexts (Gardner, 1985: 1).

Indeed, Dörnyei himself, one of the AMTB’s most vocal critics, has acknowledged that Gardner’s construct has profoundly influenced his own thinking and that he has tried to integrate elements of Gardner’s model into his own (Taie & Afshari, 2015).

For the purpose of this thesis, the AMTB was deemed the most appropriate construct to measure the attitudes and motivation of adult language learners within the context of the student/teacher relationship. Although many researchers have used the more recent L2 Motivational Self System, Dörnyei (2019b) himself underlines that “Robert Gardner’s work is not only important because it was a historical milestone and offered fertile ground in which subsequent research could grow, but also because it is still *relevant* (...) I do indeed look forward to seeing how this seminal work will keep generating ‘renewed vibrancy’” (p. xxi).

2.3.2. Foreign language anxiety

In 1978, Scovel first pointed out the complex and multifaceted nature of anxiety, positing that not all anxiety is the same nor could be related to language learning, a sentiment reaffirmed years later by MacIntyre (2017). With their seminal study in 1986, Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope sparked a broader interest in foreign language anxiety (FLA) and developed a tool for its measurement, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). They theorized that while anxiety is multi-faceted, foreign language anxiety is situation and context specific and affects how learners communicate in the classroom. The authors mention “communication apprehension” as “a type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating with people” (Horwitz et al., 1986: 127). They surmised that learners who might otherwise be competent could be in effect “paralyzed” by their fear of communicating in the foreign language. However, they asserted that FLA could be overcome, or at least alleviated, by sympathetic and supportive teachers. The crucial role of teachers in lowering FLA as pointed out by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) squares with Krashen’s (1982) notion of the “affective filter;” which posits that when learner’s negative feelings are lowered, they will be more receptive to input and learn more effectively as a result. Krashen believed that the goal of language teachers is to lower the affective filter in their learners.

According to the broaden-and-build theory (Fredrickson, 2001, 2007, 2013), negative emotions and positive emotions have distinct functions: negative emotions have a narrowing effect, focusing attention on specific things, whereas positive emotions have a broadening effect, widening one’s attention and promoting

creativity and a sense of playfulness. In a similar vein, MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012) pointed out that positive feelings enhance a learner's awareness and noticing of input in the language classroom, adding that the inevitable interplay of positive and negative emotions can be an invigorating force for language learning.

2.3.2.1. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA)

In Horwitz's et al.'s (1986) study on foreign language anxiety, the researchers used feedback from learners to describe which specific aspects of their foreign language class was causing them anxiety. Respondents reported such anxiety triggers as performing poorly on tests, being asked to speak in front of the class, and being negatively judged by both their teachers and their peers. The results led Horwitz et al. to conclude that foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) was a mix of variables, "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (Horwitz et al., 1986: 128).

In the succeeding years, researchers have been interested in exploring the specifics of FLCA, including which aspects remains stable over time (cf. Dewaele, 2017), which learner-internal variables such as gender and number of languages known might have an effect on FLCA (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014, 2016; Dewaele, MacIntyre, Boudreau, & Dewaele, 2016) as well as learner age (Dewaele & Dewaele, 2017). Dewaele and MacIntyre (2016) found that:

Participants who already mastered several languages, who had reached a higher level in the FL, who felt more proficient than their peers, who had reached a higher level of education and who were older reported significantly more FLE and significantly lower levels of FLCA. In addition, those studying more FLs also scored significantly higher on FLE, where

FLCA was not associated with studying more FLs. (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2016: 262)

Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014, 2016) found a moderate negative correlation between FLCA and FLE, and that the two are predicted by different variables, meaning that learners may experience high levels of enjoyment and anxiety simultaneously, or one more than the other, or neither. With regard to gender, Dewaele, MacIntyre, Boudreau, and Dewaele (2016) found that females tended to experience more fun in the FL classroom, but also worried more about making mistakes and had less confidence in their language abilities than their male peers.

Both learner-internal variables and learner-external variables play a part in FLCA. While teacher characteristics such as predictability and FL usage are predictors of FLE (Dewaele, Witney, Saito, & Dewaele, 2018; Dewaele, Magdalena Franco, & Saito, 2019), they are weak predictors of FLCA. In a study conducted on 40 learners who were taught by two different teachers, Dewaele and Dewaele (2020) found that both groups reported similar levels of FLE, but substantially different levels of FLCA. The authors concluded that “variation in FLE is strongly related to the teacher” and while “FLCA is more trait-like, [...] FLE is more state-like” (p. 57). A mixed methods study of FLE and FLCA which used data from 750 international FL learners looked at the effects of both classroom-specific and psychological variables. The analyses showed that attitudes towards the teacher was a strong predictor of FLE, accounting for 24% of the variance, while FLCA was strongly predicted by the personality trait of emotional stability, which accounted for 30% of the variance, followed by relative standings amongst peers, which

accounted for 9% of the variance (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2019). In various cultural contexts, a similar result emerged showing the strong influence of the teacher on FLE such as with Chinese learners of EFL (Li et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019; Jiang & Dewaele, 2019; Jin & Zhang, 2018) and Kazakh learners of Turkish (Dewaele, Özdemir, Karci, Uysal, Özdemir & Balta, 2019).

Past research has indicated that anxiety may be short lived or experienced over a longer period of time (Boudreau, MacIntyre & Dewaele, 2018; Gregersen, MacIntyre & Meza, 2014) and is not a psychologically stable variable (Dewaele, 2002). Furthermore, FLCA may be a confluence of both learner-internal and learner-external variables (Dewaele, 2017). As previously mentioned, FLE and FLCA have been conceptualized not as two opposite ends of the same spectrum, but rather as two distinct dimensions (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014, 2016). Enjoyment is affected not only by teacher-related characteristics, such as humor and unpredictability, but also by learner-internal variables such as LX proficiency. Botes, Dewaele and Greiff (2020) make the analogy of learning an LX to learning to play a musical instrument. While at first the sounds may be cacophonous, over time and with increased practice and improved technique, the sounds will become more pleasant and will be produced more automatically, thus increasing the player's enjoyment and eagerness to play. Such increased confidence, they argue, applies to FL learning as well.

In a mixed methods comparison of L1 and LX enjoyment and anxiety, Resnik and Dewaele (2020) found that both emotions were generally heightened in the LX environment, due to the lack of complacency and the challenges of learning

the LX. Furthermore, the authors posit that some anxiety may actually increase motivation and be beneficial in keeping learners focused:

We argue that rather than neutralizing each other, moderate anxiety may actually feed into enjoyment in language classes. It may make learners' heart beat faster, it sharpens their senses, it makes them focus on the task at hand, comparable to walking on a rope (with a safety harness) at great height in full public view (Resnik & Dewaele, 2020: 11)

The authors acknowledge that they are referring to moderate anxiety levels with regard to enjoyment, as opposed to high levels of anxiety which may be oppressive and have a closing-off effects on learners, occluding enjoyment and positive feelings in the classroom.

2.3.2.2. Anxiety and number of languages known

Number of languages known has been shown to be linked to lower levels of communicative anxiety (CA) and foreign language anxiety (FLA). In a study conducted on 464 multilingual individuals, Dewaele, Petrides and Furnham(2008) looked at the effect of sociobiographical variables on CA in the participants' first language, and FLA in their second, third and fourth languages. They found that the number of languages known has a marked effect on both CA and FLA. They also found that FLA tends to be higher when the classroom setting is the main source of language instruction; learners experience less anxiety when input comes also from extracurricular sources than from classroom instruction exclusively. The authors found that:

The more languages participants knew, the lower their levels of CA/FLA tended to be in some languages. The effect is not very strong in the L1 and L2, but much stronger in the L3 and L4. More specifically, this variable turned out to be significant in one situation in the L1, in two situations in the L2, in three situations in the L4, and in all of the situations in the L3. One

possible reason for the relative weakness of the effect in the L1 and L2 is that regular use means that speakers are less likely to have to mobilize all of their resources to produce the L1 or L2. (Dewaele, Petrides & Furnham, 2008: 947)

Kemp (2001, 2007) found that individuals who knew more than two languages were able to develop a better sense of grammatical metalinguistic awareness, which helped them to learn additional languages. In other words, knowing more than two languages helped individuals develop strategies for learning grammar which they were able to effectively apply to acquiring additional languages. Similarly, Dewaele (2007) found that trilinguals and quadrilinguals had lower levels of FLA in the L2 when compared with FLA levels of bilinguals, which he posits may be the result of increased communicative competence and increased self-confidence.

Dewaele (2010) conducted a study on 953 users of French to find out if proficiency in other languages, Romance languages in particular, would have an effect on CA. The author hypothesized that the more languages an individual knows, the more likely they will be able to apply language learning strategies to additional languages, drawing the analogy of a more physically fit, sporty person being in a better position to learn new sports by using the skills their existing fitness and skills acquired in one sport to other additional sports (Dewaele, 2010: 105). The findings of his study revealed that more languages known did in fact have an effect on CA, more notably with receptive skills than productive skills: "Knowing more languages and knowing more closely related languages has a stronger positive effect on comprehending and reading French than on speaking and writing it" (p. 122).

The question of how proficiency levels in additional languages affects anxiety was explored by Thompson and Lee (2012) who explored not only number of languages known and anxiety, but more specifically, the researchers take into account the proficiency levels of the additional languages, comparing low level multilinguals (LLM) to high level multilinguals (HLM) in the context of Korean students learning English. The researchers found that simply studying multiple languages at a basic level would not have the same effect on anxiety as being highly proficient in the additional languages studied.

With regard to FLA and FLCA, past research has shown that is related to not only proficiency in the FL, but the number of additional languages in which a learner has proficiency (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014, 2016; Horwitz, 2010), indicating an inverse relationship. Other factors have been shown to affect FLA and FLCA, such as proficiency in the TL, and relative standings amongst peers. In the current study, respondents were already of at least intermediate level English proficiency, and were asked in the questionnaire to answer on a 5-point Likert scale about how they perceived their own proficiency in general ($M = 4.11$, $SD = .80$) and in relation to their peers ($M = 3.70$, $SD = .82$). Their high scores show that respondents consistently considered themselves quite proficient users of English. The factor of additional languages known was more varied: among the respondents, there were 32 bilinguals, 57 trilinguals, 33 quadrilinguals, 4 pentalinguals and 4 sextalinguals. For the purpose of the current research, **additional languages known** was chosen as the learner-internal variable to be tested.

2.3.3. Positive feelings including enjoyment

In the current state of SLA research, anxiety has been explored broadly (Gkonou, Daubney & Dewaele, 2017), but the study of positive emotions is still being developed. The importance of positive feelings in the classroom has been increasingly recognized, as:

positive emotions also help flush out lingering effects of negative arousal. This is crucial because negative emotions cause a narrowing of focus and a restriction of the range of potential language input. Positive emotions also promote students' resilience and hardiness during difficult times. Crucially, positive emotion encourages learners to explore and play, two key activities that boost social cohesion" (Dewaele, Witney, Saito & Dewaele, 2017: 3).

The principles of PP have started shaping SLA research and have triggered a wider investigation into positive emotions involved in the language learning process (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014; Oxford, 2020) and in particular, foreign language enjoyment (FLE) (Dewaele, 2011, 2018; Dewaele & Dewaele, 2017). In their work on emotion in the language classroom, Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) analyzed FLE and FLCA of 1,740 FL learners from different parts of the world using a new FLE scale which included 21 items combined with an 8-item FLCA scale that was extracted from the FLCAS (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). Higher FLE and lower FLCA were linked to multilingualism, a feeling of performing better than one's peers, having achieved higher levels of FL proficiency, being older and studying at tertiary education.

A positive classroom atmosphere is particularly important for FL learners, as they are more vulnerable and less confident in the FL, and thus more prone to embarrassment and loss of face (Arnold, 2011). A more positive classroom

environment is, unsurprisingly, also more likely to be enjoyable. Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) found that foreign language enjoyment (FLE) and foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA) are different dimensions, though the two are moderately negatively correlated. The authors also underscore the important role of teachers in promoting enjoyment in their students.

2.4. Student/teacher relationship

The student/teacher relationship is one of the strongest factors in predicting academic success (Hattie, 2009) and the interpersonal quality of the relationship is often more important to students than the teacher's approach to the subject matter (Garner, 1995; Wallace, 1996; Hattie, 2009). Research on the student/teacher relationship in the adult foreign language learning context is scant, though it has been researched rather extensively in children and adolescents, with a particular focus on at-risk students (Brackett et al., 2011; Hughes, 2011; Ang, 2005; Košir, & Tement, 2014; Meehan et al., 2003).

Student behavior has been shown to have a predictive effect on teacher happiness and wellbeing (Klassen et al., 2012; Split, et al., 2011). A study by Hagenauer, Hascher and Volet (2015) analyzed how student behavior predicted teacher emotion in secondary school teachers, finding that student behavior and engagement had the power to predict both positive and negative emotions in teachers, such as joy and anxiety.

Like many other human relationships, the student-teacher relationship is emotion-laden and reciprocal by nature. However, there are often differences in how the relationship is perceived by students and teachers. In a longitudinal study

of the effects of the student/teacher relationship on academic adjustment of 714 elementary school students, Hughes (2011) found that “teacher and student reports of the student/teacher relationship assess largely different constructs that predict different outcomes” (p. 38). Children’s reports of the relationship’s quality predicted changes in children’s perceived academic abilities; in other words, children who perceived their teachers as supportive, warm, and solicitous were more likely to perceive themselves as academically competent. However, children and teachers were found to have different perceptions of support.

In a qualitative study of excluded secondary school students in the UK, Pomeroy (1999) found striking consistency in student descriptions of desirable and undesirable traits of teachers. The most common grievance of participants was teachers not “listening” to students, not validating their opinions and not recognizing their social and emotional needs. One interesting result which emerged from Pomeroy’s (1999) data was that students consistently had more positive feelings about teachers who they perceived to establish a friendship with them by breaking out of the traditional social distance usually mandated by the implicit social codes of the relationship.

Despite a general paucity of research on the student/teacher relationship in the language classroom, studies undertaken thus far show results following in a similar pattern. Gkonou and Mercer (2018) conducted observations and interviews of six ELT teachers from around the world who took part in a larger study funded by the British Council (Gkonou & Mercer, 2017). All the teachers interviewed indicated that they were actively working to promote a positive relationship with

their learners. The one key element which teachers recognized was the importance of empathy for students. The authors found that the student/teacher relationship is highly influenced by the teacher's emotional intelligence (EI) and social intelligence (SI), the former relating to the intrapersonal recognition and management of one's emotions, the latter dealing with the effective management of interpersonal relationships. Interestingly, the authors also found that teachers often cited their personal relationships outside the classroom as influential factors in their professional practice. Although not asked explicitly by the researchers, teachers often voluntarily mentioned the importance of the moral support of their colleagues, friends, and spouses/partners. (Gkonou & Mercer, 2018: 70).

One complicating factor that is particularly unique to the student/teacher relationship is the tricky question of appropriate distance: students and teachers want to have good relationships, but some distance is necessary, and more often than not, mutually desired. In terms of older learners, student and teachers may have different expectations of the relationship, and often have different needs and goals. In a chapter on supervision of PhD students, Dewaele (2020) touches on the dynamic nature of the supervisor and supervisee and how the relationship can change over time depending on the supervisee's needs and stages of development. The author also points out that uncertainty of the role of the supervisor is a common occurrence, both on the part of the supervisor and the supervisee:

A recurrent theme is the uncertainty that both students and supervisors have about supervisory roles and expectations. Supervisors can be faced with unexpected ethical dilemmas about supervisory boundaries, notably the responsibility to ensure that the work meets certain academic standards and

the students' responsibility to reach those standards. Another question is that of the multiple roles and responsibilities of the supervisor and student and the inevitable lack of consensus regarding their appropriacy. Do supervisors assume the role of a parent or a guru or a friend? Do they treat their students as children or disciples or friends? (Dewaele, 2020: 155)

Indeed, there is no easy answer to these questions, rather the solutions will depend on a constellation of factors, including individual, cultural, and institutional. The current study deals with adult learners of foreign languages, not PhD students, but similar questions about the student/teacher relationship and the roles of the teacher and student often arise.

Hattie's (2009) milestone study "Visible Learning" looked at the factors and approaches that have the strongest influence on student achievement. In this metastudy, the researcher analyzed and synthesized the data of over 50,000 studies which included more than 8,000,000 students to see, in essence, what's bad and what's good in learning outcomes. He found that student/teacher relationships are more crucial than other factors such as class size, homework, team teaching and traditional versus nontraditional classes. In a follow up to that metastudy, Hattie (2012) used the data to provide examples and offer concrete suggestions for effective teaching strategies. He suggests that teaching is most effective when teachers themselves become learners by actively being aware of and evaluating their own practices, and learners become teachers, by using metacognitive strategies and reciprocal teaching. Hattie's philosophy of teacher as learner as learner as teacher further underscores the reciprocal and multi-faceted nature of the student/teacher relationship and the roles contained therein.

In a study of the relationship between teacher TEI and teacher attitudes towards students, Dewaele and Mercer (2018) surveyed 513 ESL/EFL teachers from around the world about their own TEI, their attitudes towards their students overall, and their enjoyment of lively students. The authors found that teacher TEI was positively correlated to attitudes towards students and their enjoyment of lively students. Length of experience teaching also correlated positively with attitudes towards students, but had no effect on the enjoyment of lively students. High levels of teacher TEI also were linked to more effective classroom management strategies, better pedagogical skills, more creativity, and higher levels of motivation.

2.4.1. Perceptions of the teacher

Noels, Clement and Pelletier (1999) found that student perceptions of teachers as controlling were correlated positively with anxiety and negatively with motivational intensity and self-evaluation. A later study by Noels (2001) found that teachers who were perceived as more controlling made students feel less autonomous and conversely, students felt more autonomous when they perceived the teacher as having a more informative communication style. A study by den Brok, Levy, Brekelmans and Wubbels (2005) looked at how students perceive teacher proximity (cooperation) and influence (dominance) and how those perceptions related to four domains of student motivation: pleasure, effort, confidence, and relevance. They found that student perceptions of teacher proximity and influence affected students' pleasure, effort, and relevance.

In a unique study of both student and teacher perceptions, Bernaus and Gardner (2008), surveyed 31 EFL teachers and their students ($n= 694$) in Spain about effective classroom strategies, finding that they agreed on some strategies and disagreed about others, however student perceptions of the use of classroom strategies is related to student attitudes and motivation, while teacher perception of classroom strategies is not related to student attitude and motivation.

Student and teacher emotions are often in lockstep due to the process of emotional contagion and teachers are usually the ones who are crucial in controlling the emotional thermostat of the classroom. Research has demonstrated that teachers directly influence FLE (Arnold, 2011; Dewaele, Magdalena Franco & Saito, 2019; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Dewaele, Witney, Saito & Dewaele, 2018) by facilitating learning, making learners more relaxed and receptive to learn new things (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2016), and increasing attention (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014). It can be reasonably presumed that teachers who are themselves relaxed, humorous and not overly predictable in the classroom offer their students an open endorsement to risk taking by increasing positive feelings and generating a sense of playfulness (Dewaele, 2015).

The vital role of teachers in relation to classroom positive emotion was further affirmed in a study of 189 British secondary school students of French, German and Spanish by Dewaele, Witney, Saito and Dewaele (2018), who found evidence that FL teachers have a significant and direct effect on their students' enjoyment Attitudes toward the teacher explained a quarter of variance in FLE (a large effect size), the teacher's frequent use of the target language in class

explained a further 12% of variance (a medium effect size). Two other independent variables explained a smaller amount of variance in FLE: the proportion of time participants could speak in class accounted for 8% of variance (a small-to-medium effect size) and teacher predictability explained a final 6% of variance in FLE (a small effect size) (Dewaele, Witney, Saito & Dewaele, 2018: 687). None of these independent variables were linked to foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA), which led the authors to conclude that “teachers should seek to light the students’ fire by being engaging, by creating interest in the FL and by using it a lot in class rather than worry too much about students feeling cold” (p. 694).

A further study on the same dataset focused the dynamic effects of learner-internal and learner-external variables on FLE and FLCA over time (Dewaele & Dewaele, 2017). Using a pseudo-longitudinal design, the authors found that for the oldest age group (16-18 year olds), attitude towards the teacher was the strongest predictor of FLE but not of FLCA (p. 18).

In a study that focused exclusively on the effect of teacher characteristics on 210 Spanish EFL learners’ FLE and FLCA, Dewaele, Magdalena Franco and Saito (2019) found that teacher characteristics predicted 20% of variance in FLE but only 8% of variance in FLCA. Teacher’s friendliness was the strongest positive predictor of FLE. These results were not surprising considering that the mixed-methods study by Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) found that teachers play an active role in promoting FLE with the use of humor, sympathetic reactions, and encouragement.

2.5. Happiness

If emotions are complex and difficult to pin down, happiness is certainly no exception. John Lennon famously sang that “Happiness is a Warm Gun,” which he later clarified in an interview was meant as a strong sexual metaphor (Lennon, Ono, Sheff & Golson, 2001). Freud might have agreed with him. In “Civilization and its Discontents” he states that “what we call happiness in the strictest sense comes from the (preferable sudden) satisfaction of needs which have been dammed up to a high degree, and it is from its nature only possible as an episodic phenomenon” (Freud, 1961: 22). Moreover, Freud considered whether happiness might be merely the absence of misery, as human beings repress the drive for pleasure in the pursuit of the avoidance of suffering. Freud’s view may have been influenced by the Epicurean view of happiness as a basic contentment, a state that could be achieved as long as there is an absence of *aponia* (physical pain), and *ataraxia* (mental unease) (Wilson, 2015). As the original purveyor of PP, Seligman (2003) however argues that this idea of happiness simply as a lack of suffering is empirically false, that human beings can aspire to happiness, and that life need not be considered simply a zero-sum game.

Csikszentmihalyi (1997) conceptualized happiness as experienced in real time as “flow,” an optimal state wherein the participant loses himself or herself in the moment without awareness of passage of time, or of the self. The state of flow can be achieved in any activity in which the participant becomes completely

absorbed, in a state of unselfconsciousness and effortless control. He believes that flow is most often achieved in activities which engage and challenge the participant's creativity, and furthermore, that happiness and creativity have sort of a yin-yang relationship

While every organism gravitates toward that which is pleasurable as opposed to that which is painful (Gilbert, 2006), human beings are unique in their capability to endure misery, pain, and adverse circumstances in the pursuit of a greater happiness (Frankl, 2006; Gilbert, 2006). Frankl (2006) explicitly names the search for meaning as a key factor for achieving happiness, arguing that being able to derive a sense of meaning and/or purpose in life is the key to lasting wellbeing, and often the deciding factor that separates those who endure in the face of suffering and extreme adversity from those who do not (Frankl & Kushner, 2006).

Ben-Shahar (2002) combines Freud's pleasure principle with Frankl's theory to form an equation: happiness = pleasure + meaning or purpose. Happiness according to Ben-Shahar (2002) is not a binary 0/1 state and it is entirely plausible that one might be temporarily unhappy or distressed, but still happy overall. Viewing happiness in bipolar terms is indeed counterproductive, as Kahneman (2010) notes that the reluctance to admit complexity is one of the main cognitive traps which prevent happiness. Ben-Shahar famously noted that everyone experiences negative emotions except for psychopaths and the dead (2009). Therefore, a realistic understanding of happiness must acknowledge and allow for negative emotion, or an "unconditional acceptance" (Rogers, 1961).

The importance of social relationships has long been considered a vital component of happiness as well. In terms of the big five personality traits (openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism), extraversion, or more specifically, “stable extraversion” has been shown to correlate most strongly to happiness (Francis et al., 1998; Furnham & Brewin, 1990; Salary & Shaieri, 2013). As Eysenck (1983) pointed out:

Happiness is a thing called stable extraversion . . . the positive affect in happiness seemed to be related to easy sociability, with a natural, pleasant interaction with other people, . . . then it only makes sense that happiness can be associated with extraversion. Similarly, if worries and anxieties make up negative affect in happiness, it can easily be seen that instability and neuroticism are also connected to unhappiness” (Eysenck, 1983: 87-88).

With regard to the acknowledgement of the vital role of sociability, relationships and engagement in achieving happiness, Seligman (2011) coined the acronym “PERMA,” a new conceptual model meant to explain the science of happiness. The basic ingredients according to Seligman are:

- P- positive emotion
- E- engagement
- R- relationships
- M- meaning/purpose
- A- accomplishment

Because happiness is an elusive concept with widely varying associations and all sorts of loaded implicature, it is necessary to define happiness as it reflected in the research instrument of this thesis. Happiness is conceptualized

through the dynamic prism of PP, which asserts that human beings can aspire to various types of happiness; it is not all or nothing (Seligman, 2002). For the purpose of this thesis, happiness is not considered a binary concept and, as such, it is entirely plausible to experience negative emotions while still maintaining a sense of happiness and well-being overall. In fact, the acceptance of negative emotions is widely considered a precursor to happiness. (Ben-Shahar, 2002; Gilbert, 2006; Rogers, 1961; Seligman, 2002). Using Ben-Shahar's (2002) modern definition of happiness as pleasure combined with a sense of meaning and purpose, this thesis conceptualizes a happy teacher as seeming to enjoy life generally, as well as deriving a sense of meaning or purpose from the endeavor of teaching.

2.5.1. Teacher happiness

In the language classroom, happy teachers might appear more sociable, have a better social rapport with students, and promote a more relaxed classroom atmosphere which could in turn lower foreign language anxiety and increase enjoyment (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). Additionally, happier language teachers might show more enthusiasm in the classroom, which has been shown to greatly motivate students, especially when enthusiasm is "so excessive that it is bordering on being crazy" (Dörnyei, 2001: 32). In studies of what makes teachers effective, enthusiasm emerges repeatedly as a crucial ingredient; a spark, or passion for both the subject matter and the endeavor of teaching itself (Gabrys-Barker, 2014). Enthusiastic teachers whose behavior "could be described as vibrant, lively, keen, exciting, stimulating, or inspiring" (O'Neill, 1988: 168) could indeed have an effect

on language acquisition in the classroom as Rosenshine and Furst (1971) identified enthusiasm as one form of teacher behavior related to measurable learning outcomes, such as test scores.

Happiness might also manifest in teacher behavior as an observable sense of their own enjoyment as perceived by students. If teachers appear happy as evidenced by their own enthusiasm and enjoyment, perhaps students will deduce that teachers find a sense of meaning and purpose in the profession and that being a teacher aligns with their personal values, interests and self-concordant goals (Sheldon & Kasser, 2001). As described earlier in this chapter, it is also reasonable to predict that happiness might spread from teacher to student by the process of emotional contagion (Dewaele, 2017, Dewaele & Mercer, 2018, Dimberg, Thunberg, & Elmehed, 2000, Hagenauer, Hascher & Volet, 2015, Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). For this reason, while teacher happiness is important in its own right (De Costa et al., 2019; Mercer, Oberdorfer & Saleem, 2016; Mercer & Kostoulas, 2018; Oxford, 2020), it also relates significantly to the language learner. Studies have shown that there exists a causal relationship between a teacher's happiness and their overall feeling of wellbeing, the effectiveness of their teaching, and ultimately the student's performance (Bajorek et al., 2014; Caprara et al., 2006; Day & Gu, 2009; Klusmann et al., 2008).

2.5.2. Emotion labor

There is often a misalignment between institutional standards and expectations, student preferences and teacher needs, which can induce emotional tension in teachers (Loh & Liew, 2016). Consequently, language teachers often

create a classroom persona, which affects their classroom displays both consciously and unconsciously (King, 2016). Language teachers often describe feeling more like actors than educators (Beadle, 2009; Lamb, 2017), engaging in both surface acting and deep acting (Hochschild, 1983).

Hochschild (1979, 1983) first coined the phrases *emotional labor* and *feeling rules* to describe the affective training that certain professionals were required to undergo. She studied two types of professionals who must follow so-called feeling rules, changing their behavior to suit their employer's mandates. The first group of professionals was flight attendants, who must be nicer than normal, building up the client and making them feel special, and the second was bill collectors who must do the opposite, being meaner than normal and tearing down the client to coerce them to submit payment.

In her research, Hochschild expressed concern that feigning positivity could have deleterious effects on flight attendants, particularly when they were dealing with passengers in difficult situations. This could be extended to teachers as well. Although education is not a service-oriented profession, similar rules are often applied to teachers, who must act with composure when dealing with difficult students, and other institutional pressures. Unlike Hochschild, Benesch (2018) does not contend that all emotional labor is necessarily harmful; instead, she focuses on the dynamic of power in terms of who can express their emotions and who can't, and which emotions are considered appropriate to express in the first place. Benesch is thus:

...Interested in how emotion labor might be a useful signal of unfair conditions and relied upon in the service of institutional change. This is not

to say that I discount the discomfort teachers might experience when they find themselves at odds with institutional policies, due to their ethical beliefs, experience, and/or training. Instead, I acknowledge that tension and call upon its use for transformational purposes (p. 5).

Benesch (2018) looked more deeply into the role of the institution in the emotion labor and feeling rules of its teachers. In her study of college English professors who were mandated by their institution to enforce plagiarism rules with their students, she identified several common situations in which professors used emotion labor. The first when there was tension between feeling obliged to act and not knowing what to do, the second was when the professor felt a conflict between their professional expertise and their sense of empathy, the third was resistance to so-called feeling rules (in other words, professors didn't think plagiarism was such an unforgivable transgression even though the institution tried to make them feel a sense of outrage over it), and fourth, was in the use of pedagogical solutions. In this case, instead of the retribution that was mandated by the institution's plagiarism policy, professors viewed it as an opportunity to teach their learners and encourage their language development. Overall, the professors in Benesch's study were supposed to feel angry about plagiarism, as though it were a personal affront, an intentional act of dishonesty by the student, or some sort of academic high crime. This mandate was often at odds with how the professors truly felt, which was that plagiarism was not necessarily so terrible, and was even a logical step in the development of the writing process of their students.

Just as with the flight attendants and bill collectors in Hochschild's study (1979, 1983), Benesch (2020b) makes the case that teachers must engage in similar labor, though she makes a distinction between *emotional labor* and *emotion*

labor, opting for the latter. She argues that “the reason for this choice is that *emotional* can be negatively associated with someone, especially a woman, behaving in an overwrought and socially unacceptable way. To avoid that negative connotation and to highlight the relationship between emotions and power, I use emotion labor.” (Benesch, 2020b: 67). The promotion of emotion labor in teachers might serve to achieve managerial goals, such as viewing students as customers who must be kept happy and consequently, paying. Benesch (2020a) noted that one particular example is the outsize pressure placed on students to pass standardized tests which makes teachers feel more like testing coaches than educators, causing them distress which might lead to emotion labor. Given the amount of emotion labor teachers routinely engage in, a worthwhile argument can be made that reducing such emotion labor could increase teacher happiness, helping not only teachers but their students as well.

2.5.3. The Oxford Happiness Inventory (OHI)

The Oxford Happiness Inventory (OHI) (Argyle, Martin & Crossland, 1989) was developed to assess overall personal happiness. The original test consists of 30 items: 19 items meant to serve as a reverse of the items of the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) (Beck, Ward, Mendelson, Hock, & Erbaugh, 1961) and an additional 11 items added to measure subjective well-being. “This measure operationalised the arguments of Argyle and Crossland (1987) that happiness depends on the frequency and degree of positive affect or joy, high levels of satisfaction over a period of time, and the absence of such negative feelings as depression or anxiety” (Francis, Brown, Lester & Philipchalk, 1998, p. 167). The

OHI has consistently been shown to be adaptable and to have a high rate of reliability across cultures (Francis, Brown, Lester & Philipchalk, 1998; Hills & Argyle, 2002). Additionally, no significant sex differences have been shown in samples collected from three major UK institutions (Argyle & Lu, 1990; Furnham & Brewin, 1990; Lu & Argyle, 1991). An administration of the test in Australia, Canada, the U.S. and the U.K. by Francis et al. (1998) also found no significant sex differences among respondents.

In a test of respondents taking both the OHI and the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975) as part of the same experiment, Furnham & Brewin (1990) found a strong correlation between happiness as measured by the OHI and extraversion as measured by the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire. The authors also found that three factors of the OHI formed interpretable scales in the measure of happiness:

- satisfaction with personal achievements
- enjoyment/fun in life
- vigor/good health

For the purpose of this thesis which deals with student perceptions of teachers, the OHI was chosen because of its high rate of validity and adaptability. The research instrument, which will be discussed at length in Chapter 3, employs an observer-rated happiness scale for students to rate their teachers' happiness, having been adapted from the original construct which relied on self-reported scores. A later form of the OHI, the *Oxford Happiness Questionnaire* (OHQ) was purposely not chosen as the construct to measure teacher happiness in the current

research for several key reasons, the most crucial being its length: the OHI is less repetitive and more concise.

2.5.4. Criticism of OHI and OHQ

In the last two decades, the study of positive emotions and subjective wellbeing has grown exponentially since the establishment of earlier constructs (Kahneman, Diener, & Schwarz, 1999; Seligman & Csiksentmihalyi, 2000), however happiness and subjective well-being remain complicated and difficult to quantify. Kashdan (2004) raised issues related to the measure of subjective well-being by the Oxford Happiness Questionnaire (OHQ), the successor of the original OHI. The author argues that while the construct measures such characteristics as physical fitness, finding beauty in things, self-esteem, and positive relationships with others, the authors of the OHQ do not provide a sufficient definition or theoretical framework for subjective well-being, which the construct purports to measure (Kashdan, 2004: 7).

Kashdan points out the faulty logic of including questions dealing with physical fitness and the subjects' perception of their own attractiveness, although physical attractiveness does not differentiate happier people from less happy people (Diener & Seligman, 2002). Another important point that Kashdan raises in his critique of the OHQ and its predecessor, the OHI, is that the scale includes items which ask about the subjects' self-esteem. He argues that this is not a reliable factor of happiness as there is empirical evidence to suggest that some people with low self-esteem may indeed report high levels of happiness (Lyubomirsky, 2001; Lyubomirsky, Tkach & DiMatteo, 2006). Despite this criticism

of both the OHI and OHQ, for the purpose of this thesis, the OHI was chosen rather than the OHQ, due to its concision and lack of redundancy. Choosing the OHI was both theoretically and logistically preferable; the full questionnaire used in the current research is long and involved, and the shorter, more concise OHI was deemed a better fit in the interest of retaining respondents' interest. The OHI was also deemed more amenable to adaptation as an observer-reported test, which was needed in order to ask students to rate their teachers' happiness levels.

2.6. Gaps in the literature

As previously stated, SLA research has traditionally been more concerned with the learner and learner individual differences than with the study of FL teachers. Furthermore, while negative emotions such as anxiety have been given much attention, positive emotions such as enjoyment have only fairly recently begun to gain traction in SLA research. The questions of how students perceive their language teachers is still incipient, and the question of how students perceive certain teacher emotions such as happiness, is almost nonexistent. This oversight could be explained by the same preoccupation with learners; asking if the teacher is happy may have seemed like an afterthought, separate from learner happiness which was the main preoccupation. In fact, learner happiness has been largely considered the responsibility of teachers, with very little thought given to the bidirectional nature of the student/teacher relationship and the process of emotional contagion between students and teachers in the classroom.

Past research has shown that student happiness and teacher happiness are indeed interrelated (Bajorek, Gulliford & Taskila, 2014; Caprara, Barbaranelli,

Steca & Malone, 2006; Day & Gu, 2009; Klusmann, Kunter, Trautwein, Lüdtke & Baumert, 2008) and that students and teachers are linked by emotional contagion in the classroom (Dimberg, Thunberg, & Elmejed, 2000; Hagenauer et al., 2015; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003), though the question of language teacher happiness filtered through the lens of student perception, and the ramifications of those perceptions is still largely unanswered.

Asking students, even adults, to rate their teachers on emotional characteristics may have been seen in the past as a breach of the unspoken yet important social distance that the student/teacher relationship has traditionally dictated. Many teachers are loath to reveal too many personal details about themselves in the classroom, nor to give too much personal information about themselves and their relationship at home and in other areas of their private lives. This reluctance is certainly understandable; students themselves might even be made uncomfortable knowing too much about their teachers, and too many private details might effectively distract students from learning the subject matter. In a blog post about mentoring PhD students, Dewaele (2019) states that “good supervisors are close to their students but not too close and the distance can change over time.”

Despite the degree of closeness or distance of a given student/teacher relationship, students will actively, and unavoidably, form impressions and opinions of who their teacher is, how they conduct themselves beyond the confines of the classroom, and the quality of not only their teaching practice but their psychological makeup and overall mental state. Given the inevitability of students forming such

impressions, the body of literature on said impressions of students is remarkably lacking.

One serious challenge of collecting data on the subject of student impressions of teachers, particularly when researching adult learners, is the discomfort in asking students what they think of their teachers personally: a potentially awkward proposition for both researchers and respondents. The thought of being assessed on emotions and personal information by their students is probably enough to make many language teachers recoil in horror. Nevertheless, such information might provide a wealth of data on student attitudes and motivation, the student/teacher relationship, FL learning and teaching, and perhaps even teacher psychology.

2.7. Research questions and hypotheses

Although very little research exists on adult language students and their perceptions of their teachers' emotions, hypotheses are based on the preceding literature review. This thesis will attempt to answer the following research questions:

- 1) What is the relationship between perceived teacher TEI and student attitudes and motivation?
 - a) If a relationship exists, which factors of TEI best predict each separate variable of student attitude and motivation?

The predicted outcome is that student perception of teacher TEI will correlate positively with their own self-reported attitude and motivation. The TEI domain of sociability is expected to show the strongest relationship to student attitude and motivation, based on extant research which has shown repeatedly that

students across age groups and subject matter feel more positively about friendlier, more sociable teachers (Curci, Lanciano & Soleti 2014; Dewaele, Witney, Saito & Dewaele, 2018; Gkonou & Mercer, 2018; Hughes, 2011; Pomeroy, 1999)

Perceived teacher TEI is expected to show a positive relationship to student positive feelings and a negative relationship to anxiety (den Brok, Levy, Brekelmans & Wubbels, 2005; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Krashen, 1982; MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012; Noels, Clement & Pelletier, 1999; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). It is hypothesized that teachers who are perceived to have higher TEI will also show more enthusiasm in their classroom behavior and in particular, will allow for more student autonomy and creativity, as past research has shown a connection between teacher positive emotion and student-centered teaching approaches (Postareff & Lindblom-Ylänne, 2011; Trigwell, 2012). Teacher TEI has been linked to encouragement and appreciation of lively classroom interaction (Dewaele & Mercer, 2018) and more positive teacher emotion is connected to effective teaching strategies and creativity (Pekrun et al, 2002; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Dewaele, Gkonou & Mercer, 2018).

2) What is the relationship between perceived teacher happiness and student attitudes and motivation?

a) If a relationship exists, which factors of happiness best predict each separate variable of student attitude and motivation?

It is predicted that teachers perceived as happier will also have happier students who report higher levels of positive emotions such as enjoyment (Dewaele & Dewaele, 2017; Dewaele & Mercer, 2018; Dimberg, Thunberg &

Elmehed, 2000; Hagenauer, Hascher & Volet, 2015; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). The literature reviewed has indicated a strong connection between teacher TEI and student happiness and reduced anxiety. However, there is a dearth of literature on student perception of teacher happiness and student self-reported anxiety. However, Dewaele et al. (2018) did find that attitudes towards the teacher were not a significant predictor of student anxiety. Therefore, the prediction is that perceived teacher happiness will not significantly predict student anxiety. Overall, it is predicted that students will show a preference for teachers they perceive to be happier, as happier teachers help students thrive (Mercer, Oberdorfer & Saleem, 2016). This preference is expected to emerge as a link between attitude towards teacher and perceived teacher happiness, with the happiness factor of enjoyment/fun in life emerging as the significant predictor.

3) Do perceptions of teacher TEI and happiness affect how students rate their teachers' classroom behavior?

The hypothesis is that teachers who are perceived as having higher TEI levels will display more positive and engaging behaviors in the classroom. Dewaele and Mercer (2018) found that higher levels of TEI in teachers was reflected in their enjoyment of students and levels of enthusiasm.

As for teacher happiness, it would seem logical that happier teachers would feel more comfortable engaging students, show higher levels of enthusiasm and feel more comfortable with student-centered practices. However, past research on teacher emotion labor has indicated that teachers are often expected to engage in surface acting and deep acting (Benesch, 2018), and that teacher emotions on

display in the classroom may be at odds with their true internal feelings (Loh & Liew, 2016). Based on the literature dealing with emotion labor in the classroom, it is hypothesized that perceived teacher happiness will not be a significant predictor of classroom behavior, or at the very least, that it will not predict as much variance as perceived teacher TEI.

4) How do the learner-internal variables of gender and number of languages known relate to student attitude and motivation, and perceived teacher TEI and happiness?

All participants of the current study are adults over 18 years old, though they hail from widely diverse national and linguistic backgrounds. Past research has been varied and somewhat inconclusive with regard to gender differences in the language classroom, though there is evidence that females tend to experience slightly higher levels of anxiety and enjoyment (Dewaele, MacIntyre, Boudreau & Dewaele, 2016). As such, it is conjectured that the results of the current study will follow a similar pattern, with females showing higher levels of positive feelings and anxiety. With regard to student perception of teacher TEI and happiness, it is predicted that females will rate their teachers TEI and happiness higher than males. The “emotional sensitivity hypothesis” posits that females are more likely than males to perceive subtle emotional cues in others, however this theory has been contradicted by Fischer, Kret and Broekens (2018) who found that there was no significant gender difference, except that males regard themselves as less confident in perceiving and understanding the emotions of others.

By design, all participants are of intermediate level English or higher, though it is expected that the more languages known, the higher the scores will be for perceived teacher TEI and happiness. Past research has shown a negative correlation to number of languages known and classroom anxiety (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014) and it is expected that a similar pattern will emerge in this thesis as well, with respondents who report knowing more languages scoring lower for anxiety

5) In their own words, how important do students think the qualities of TEI and happiness are in FL teachers?

It is expected that students will report that teacher TEI and happiness are both highly and equally important qualities in FL teachers. Past research has shown that students explicitly prefer teachers who are friendly, listen to students, and validate students' opinions and concerns (Pomeroy, 1999). From the teacher's end, past research indicates that teachers believe it is important for them to be empathetic and actively promote positive relationships with their students (Gkonou & Mercer, 2017). Given the bidirectional nature of the student-teacher relationship, the expected qualitative findings are that students feel very strongly about both teacher TEI and teacher happiness.

Chapter 3. Methodology

This chapter will begin with an explanation and justification of the present research method used to answer the research questions. Then ethics approval will be presented, and the administration and results of the pilot study will be described. The next section will provide detailed information about the participants. Then the study will be described in depth, including the design and administration of the online questionnaire, the rationale for using the chosen constructs, and the composition of the open-ended follow up questions. A detailed description of the participants of the open-ended questions will also be provided, including demographic information and their questionnaire scores. The chapter will conclude with a summary.

3.1. Explanation and rationale for research method

This research method is a cross-sectional design which collects data from a group of people at one specific point in time, with the aim of exploring student attitudes and motivation in relation to perceptions of teachers at one particular moment. “Cross-sectional research refers to research in which researchers collect data from one or more cohorts (a person, group of people) at a single point in time or within a short period of time (e.g. using questionnaires, one-off interviews). Cross-sectional research is often described as a snapshot of data collection” (Paltridge & Phaktiti, 2015). This type of study was chosen because, the participant pool was intended to be diverse geographically, demographically, and linguistically, and cross-sectional studies allow researchers to “examine characteristics of

samples from different populations during the same time period” (Sproull, 1995: 372).

While definitions of mixed methods research have varied (Flick, 2017), Creswell and Plano Clark (2018) suggest that mixed methods approaches could be classified by their research designs, considering four major factors: “purpose (or intent for mixing), sequencing of qualitative and quantitative strands, priority (dominance of each method), and level of interaction between each strand” (Walker & Baxter, 2019: 2). In line with Creswell and Plano Clark’s (2018) conceptualization of mixed methods approaches, and their earlier definition of ‘dominance’ in regard to which method is more central to the research project (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011), the current research design could be considered a mixed-methods approach with a dominant quantitative component. However, in light of the notable imbalance between quantitative and qualitative data collected, the study is described as a quantitative study in order to avoid confusion. The qualitative data collected were scant in comparison to the quantitative, and although deemed worthy of inclusion and analysis, calling the present study’s approach mixed-methods could be somewhat misleading. The quantitative data was collected first, and the qualitative data was collected after, in what might be considered an exploratory sequential design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

Originally, the intended research design was a more balanced mixed methods approach, combining both emic and etic perspectives to broaden the scope of data collected and deepen understanding of elusive phenomena (Dewaele, 2008; Dewaele, 2019). The collection of qualitative data yielded results

which indeed supported the general findings of the questionnaire (to be presented in chapter 5 and discussed in chapter 6), however after reviewing the data collected from the open-ended questions, the researcher determined that few participant responses to the follow-up written questions supplied truly compelling narratives worthy of inclusion and deeper analysis.

With a primarily quantitative-driven approach, statistical analyses will be used primarily to explore how students view their teachers and how those views are linked to their own attitudes and motivation. Correlation analyses and stepwise multiple regression analyses will be used. A major strength of multiple regression analysis in applied linguistics research is “the flexibility it affords researchers in terms of the types of variables and levels of measurement that it allows for” (Plonsky & Ghanbar, 2018: 2).

To analyze learner-internal variables, the four domains of student attitude and motivation will be considered as four separate dependent variables. The rationale for this decision is based on past research indicating that certain demographic variables such as gender and number of languages known can affect anxiety and enjoyment (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014, 2016). The two independent variables of perceived teacher TEI and perceived teacher happiness will be treated as two composite variables. The other learner-internal variables such as L1 and nationality will not be analyzed because, although they may indeed have an influential role in student attitude and motivation, a larger and more balanced sample would be needed to draw any meaningful conclusions.

The data collection utilizes an online questionnaire which was chosen for ease of collection across countries and groups of participants (Wilson & Dewaele, 2010) and because “data obtained in this way have been shown to be valuable and can come closest to catching elusive phenomena” (Dewaele, 2019: 77). The qualitative data was collected in the succeeding month by email, sent to volunteers who indicated that they were willing to answer follow-up questions based on their participation.

In the questionnaire, participants were asked to self-report their own attitudes and motivation and to rate their perceptions of their teachers’ emotional intelligence and happiness with observer-reported questionnaire subsections. The qualitative component consisted of open-ended questions meant to elicit stories or anecdotes of individual experiences and opinions. As previously stated, the bulk of the data is quantitative, and the qualitative component is used to as a supplement, to a crucial human touch by including students’ thoughts in their own words (Creswell, 2015). Respondents’ scores for the quantitative section will also be presented to compare with their qualitative responses. Qualitative data will be tied to quantitative data and summarized.

3.2. Ethics approval

This study obtained ethics approval by the School of Social Sciences, History, and Philosophy at Birkbeck College, University of London on April, 28th, 2017. The study was determined to be of a routine nature and presented no inherent risk to the participants or the researcher. Participants were required to be at least 18 years old to participate. They were made aware of the nature of the

study and were required to grant their informed consent before proceeding to take part.

3.3. Pilot study

A pilot study of the questionnaire was conducted on ten Austrian university students enrolled in an advanced English class. It was administered during the winter term of 2017. The pilot study had several purposes. One was to see if the questionnaire length was appropriate; there was initially some concern about attrition, due to the possibility that the questionnaire was too long to hold respondents' attention. One aim of the pilot study was to determine which questions to focus on in the follow-up questions for the qualitative data collection. Students filled out the entire questionnaire without omitting items, and provided anonymous feedback indicating that the length was acceptable. As a result, the pilot study was not changed and the data obtained from the pilot study was used in the final data collection.

3.4. Participants

The participant pool consisted of a total of 129 adults (40 male, 87 female, 2 unspecified) from varied geographical settings (primarily Europe, the Middle East, and Japan) who were enrolled in a formal English LX class at the intermediate level or higher at the time the questionnaire was administered. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 60 years old (Mean = 23 years, SD = 6). They started learning English between the ages of 4 to 46, with an average of 9 years old. They reported 28 different nationalities, with 6 respondents reporting dual nationalities. The largest nationality group represented was Austrian (n = 40), followed by French (n

= 16), Japanese (n = 14), UAE (n = 9), Syria (n = 7), Belgium (n = 7). The highest first language group was German (n = 43), followed by Arabic (n = 26), French (n = 23) and Japanese (n = 13). Participants were also asked how many additional languages, aside from the L1 and English, they spoke with at least enough proficiency to carry on a basic conversation. There were 32 bilinguals, 57 trilinguals, 33 quadrilinguals, 4 pentalinguals and 4 sextalinguals.

In describing their own English performance as compared to their peers, on a 5-point Likert scale, indicated that most participants rated themselves slightly above their peers (Mean = 3.70, SD = .82). When asked how they would describe their own level of English on a 5-point Likert scale, the Mean was 4.11 with a SD of .80, which shows that indeed most participants rated their level of English as rather advanced.

When asked about their use of and exposure to English outside of the classroom, the reported scores were generally high (see below). Participants spent most time listening to music in English, which makes sense considering that it is presumably easily accessible, followed by watching movies in English (whether with or without subtitles was not specified). The least amount of time was spent travelling to English speaking countries, which requires more personal resources such as free time and financial means. On a 7-point Likert scale ranging from *never* to *always*, respondents answered as follows:

<i>Listening to music:</i>	Mean = 6.12, SD = 1.60
<i>Watching movies in English:</i>	Mean = 5.39, SD = 1.86

<i>Overall exposure outside the classroom:</i>	Mean = 4.78, SD = 1.48
<i>Reading books/magazines:</i>	Mean = 4.55, SD = 1.96
<i>Watching television in English:</i>	Mean = 4.18, SD = 2.20
<i>Socializing in English:</i>	Mean = 4.17, SD = 1.61
<i>Travel to English speaking countries:</i>	Mean = 3.90, SD = 1.98

3.5. Quantitative data collection: questionnaire

Data were collected in an online questionnaire using the snowball method, a form of non-probability sampling (Ness Evans & Rooney, 2013). Since the goal was to research adult students from varied L1 and cultural backgrounds, an online questionnaire was the most efficient method (Dewaele, 2018). The call for participation was sent to primary contacts which included colleagues, friends who were both teachers and students, and acquaintances who worked in educational settings in various capacities including administratively. The call was then sent to secondary and tertiary contacts. Some contacts who were teachers administered the survey to their students during class time, while others mentioned the link to the survey, asking students to complete it outside of class. The questionnaire was written in the form of a Google Doc survey, and was sent around via email and posted on various social media platforms. Friends and colleagues who are teachers were asked to administer the survey to their students and to ask their own friends and colleagues to do the same. Teachers were made aware of what the research entailed, and told that some of the questions that would be asked of students were of a somewhat personal nature. There was no particular incentive for students to complete the questionnaire, so participation was entirely voluntary.

They were told that students would be answering a series of questions about how they perceived their teacher's trait emotional intelligence (TEI) and happiness. All responses were kept strictly anonymous. It was divided into six sub sections:

1. **About you.** This section contained 15 total items and collected basic demographic and personal information, such as age, gender, nationality, number of languages spoken, age of first starting to learn English, exposure to English outside the classroom, habits of English use, and travel to English speaking countries. Participants were also asked to rate their own level of English proficiency, and their level of proficiency in comparison to their peers.
2. **Lextale** (Lemhöfer & Broersma, 2012), with 63 total items, designed for medium to high proficiency users of English, the test "consists of a simple un-speeded visual lexical decision task, which takes on average 3.5 minutes to complete" (Lemhöfer & Broersma, 2012). It included 60 real English words and made up, English-looking words. This section was included as a general means of assessing English proficiency among participants.
3. **About your attitude and motivation**, with 60 total items extracted from the AMTB (Gardner, 1985). (Cronbach's alpha = .800).
4. **About your teacher's emotional intelligence**, with 22 total items adapted from TEIQue 360° Short Form (Petrides & Furnham , 2006) (Cronbach's alpha = .914)

5. **About your teacher's happiness**, with 16 total items adapted from the Oxford Happiness Inventory (Argyle, Martin & Crossland, 1989) (Cronbach's alpha =.90)
6. **In the classroom**, consisting of 6 open questions about observable habits of teacher behavior in the classroom, such as the encouragement of group work, teacher creativity, making the class student-centered, giving corrective feedback and initiating stimulating, lively interactions. (Cronbach's alpha = .830)

3.5.1. Questionnaire detailed description

1. **About you** This section asked participants about their gender, age, nationality, first language, other languages known at least well enough to carry on a basic conversation, and at what age they started learning English. The section also asks participants to compare their English performance to those of their classmates, using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *far below average* to *far above average*. They were also asked to describe their own level of English, also with a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from *beginner* to *advanced*. Participants were then asked about their use of and exposure to English outside of the classroom, using a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from *never* to *always*. Specifically, they were asked how often they watch movies and television in English, read English books and magazines, listen to music in English, socialize in English, and travel to English-speaking countries. The final question in this subsection asks participants to rate their overall exposure to English in general outside the classroom.

2. **LEXTALE** By design, all participants were required to be enrolled in a formal English class at the intermediate level or higher. The LEXTALE was administered not only as a rough tool to verify English proficiency of participants, but also to provide additional information about participants for the possibility of analysis and comparison of groups based on LEXTALE scores.

3. **About your attitude and motivation.** This section includes items extracted from the *Attitude and Motivation Test Battery* meant to measure students' desire to learn, attitudes towards learning and motivational intensity with responses measured on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*, (Mean = 3.49, SD = .32, Cronbach's alpha = .800). Negatively worded items were reverse coded.

Survey items were selected from the AMTB with several criteria in mind. First, since the participants were all adults, the section on students' parents which appears in the original was omitted. For the same reason, items across all categories that dealt with homework and assignments were also omitted. Additionally, this section was adapted from the original construct with several key considerations. Since the focus of this thesis is in part on teacher psychology and how teachers are perceived, a dimension was formed to focus specifically on *students' attitudes toward the teacher* (see below). Another dimension which was formed was *positive feelings* (see below), as student attitudes are being explored within the framework of Positive Psychology.

This section was divided into 4 subsections:

- a. **Attitude towards English** (23 items, Mean = 4.09, SD = .516, Cronbach's α = .865), which included items such as: *Learning English is really great, and I have a strong desire to know all aspects of English.* This section was adapted from the original section of the AMTB on *integrativeness*.
- b. **Positive feelings** including enjoyment (10 items, Mean = 3.91, SD = .65, Cronbach's α = .794), with items such as, *I would rather spend more time in English class and less time in other classes.*
- c. **Attitude towards teacher** (12 items, Mean = 3.76, SD = .63, Cronbach's α = .790), based on the AMTB section on *attitudes towards the learning situation*. This subcategory included items such as: *I look forward to going to class because my teacher is so good, and My English teacher is a great source of inspiration to me.*
- d. **Anxiety**, (15 items, Mean = 2.22, SD = .70, Cronbach's α = .848). AMTB has two measures of anxiety: one to measure anxiety of L2 use in the classroom, and one to measure L2 use outside the classroom, as Gardner's (1985) concept of anxiety was specific to the use of L2. In keeping with the characteristic of the original construct, this subsection is meant to gauge both

anxiety within the English classroom and English use anxiety outside the classroom. This subsection was adapted from the AMTB section on *attitudes towards the learning situation*.

4. About your teacher's emotional intelligence (22 items) This section was adapted from *TEIQue 360° Short Form* (Petrides & Furnham, 2006), a construct chosen because it is meant as an observer report, meaning that respondents answer questions about the emotional intelligence of a target individual (other than themselves). It was adapted to fit the context of a foreign language classroom, utilizing a 7-point Likert scale (mean= 5.21, SD=.95, Cronbach's alpha = .914). Negatively worded items were reverse coded. The section was divided into 4 subsections, as determined by the original construct:

- a. **wellbeing** (mean = 5.51, SD = 1.18, α = .669)
- b. **self-control** (mean = 5.20, SD = 1.23, α = .758)
- c. **emotionality** (mean = 5.06, SD = 1.14, α = .796)
- d. **sociability** (mean = 5.18, SD = .83, α = .641)

5. About your teacher's happiness (16 items) Adapted from the *Oxford Happiness Inventory* (Argyle, Martin & Crossland, 1989), this section is meant to assess overall personal happiness. In its original form, the construct was meant to test self-reported measures of happiness, however, since the purpose of this research is to assess how students perceive their teachers' happiness, this section was adapted as an observer report, similar to the *TEIQ 360° SF* (see above). This

construct was chosen because of its adaptability and consistently high rate of reliability across cultures (Hills & Argyle, 2002). Negatively worded items were reverse coded. Items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale, from *completely disagree* to *completely agree* (Mean = 5.33, SD = 1.06, Cronbach's alpha = .90). This section consisted of 3 subsections, based on those determined in the original construct by Furnham and Brewin (1990):

- a. **satisfaction with personal achievements** (2 items) (Mean = 5.59, SD = 1.27, alpha = .740) with the items: *In general my teacher seems pleased with themselves,* and *My teacher probably feels that teaching is rewarding.*
- b. **enjoyment/fun in life** (8 items) (Mean = 5.39, SD = 1.18, Cronbach's alpha = 0.90), including items such as: *My teacher often finds things amusing,* and *My teacher has a cheerful effect on students.* The final subcategory measured
- c. **vigor/good health** (6 items, Mean = 5.17, SD = 1.03, Cronbach's alpha = 0.76), with items such as: *My teacher probably thinks the world is a good place,* and *My teacher seems to feel mentally fully alert.*

6. **Classroom behavior** (6 items) This section asks participants about their teacher's observable behavior in the classroom, with regard to such aspects as

corrective feedback, fairness, and clarity (Mean = 5.53 , SD = 1.11 , Cronbach's alpha = .830). Responses were measured on a 7-point Likert scale. This section was included bearing in mind past research which has shown that teachers who are more emotionally intelligent tend to enjoy their students more and encourage more lively interactions in the classroom (Dewaele & Mercer, 2018). The items measured in this section were as follows:

1. *My teacher frequently allows students to work independently.*
2. *My teacher makes class exciting and stimulating.*
3. *My teacher enjoys lively classroom interactions.*
4. *When students make mistakes, my teacher is not harsh in correcting them.*
5. *My teacher explains things clearly and makes sure students understand.*
6. *My teacher treats all students fairly.*

After completing the questionnaire, participants were asked if they would be willing to provide their email address in order to answer open-ended follow-up questions based on their survey. This will be addressed in depth in the qualitative analysis section. This questionnaire was active online for a period of about 4 months, from April 2017 to July, 2017. Originally, a total of 134 people responded, however several were omitted because they skipped too many questions or entire sections. The final total of respondents for the questionnaire was $n = 129$.

3.5.2. Rationale for using the AMTB

For this research, the AMTB was chosen because it takes into account positive emotions such as desire to learn, as well as the important negative emotion of anxiety. As the respondents were intended to be adult language learners, the AMTB was deemed the most appropriate construct because, based on the socio-educational model, it considers factors of language learning, such as the psychological, social, and political (Gardner, 2010b). Furthermore, as the focus of this thesis is on emotions in the context of the student/teacher relationship including social and emotional perceptions, the AMTB was considered a more suitable instrument than the widely used L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005), which focuses heavily on identity.

The driving force of this research is the exploration of the student/teacher relationship in the language classroom, and the AMTB includes a section on attitudes towards the learning situation which explicitly asks questions about student attitude towards the teacher. Rather than use the L2 Motivational Self System which essentially measures how learners envision themselves as users of the L2 and takes into great consideration the social identity of the learner (Dörnyei, 2009), the AMTB was deemed a better fit to assess student attitudes and motivation within the context of the student/teacher relationship. One particularly strong point of the AMTB over other constructs, is that it is considered to be more reflective of the realities of language learning:

That is, the experiences gained by learners in formal or informal settings affect attitude which in turn affects motivation, which itself in an endless cyclical process affects continued experience in those settings. Therefore, this model takes the true dynamic nature of learning into account and allows for the inevitable variability of the interlanguage, and as such the model is considered to be (more) realistic than other methods (Taie & Afshari, 2015: 610).

Despite the existing criticism of the AMTB, which was discussed at greater length in chapter 2, it was still deemed the best construct for this research project.

3.6. Quantitative data analysis

In order to answer the research questions, four threads of analysis will be used: one for perceived teacher TEI, one for perceived teacher happiness, and two for teacher classroom behavior. Each domain of student attitude and motivation will be analyzed against each factor of perceived teacher TEI (4 total) and perceived teacher happiness (3 total). The dependent variable of teacher classroom behavior will be treated as one composite dependent variable, tested against the 4 factors of perceived teacher TEI and the 3 factors of perceived teacher happiness. (Table 1)

Table 1. Details of four main threads of analysis

1. IV: Perceived teacher TEI (emotionality, wellbeing, self-control, sociability)
DV: Attitude towards teacher
DV: Attitude towards English
DV: Positive feelings
DV: Anxiety
Correlation and regression analyses: 4 IVs, 4 DVs
2. IV: Perceived teacher happiness (enjoyment/fun in life, satisfaction with personal achievements, vigor/good health)
DV: Attitude towards teacher
DV: Attitude towards English
DV: Positive feelings
DV: Anxiety
Correlation and regression analyses: 3 IVs, 4 DVs
3. DV: Teacher classroom behavior
IV: emotionality
IV: wellbeing
IV: self-control
IV: sociability
Correlation and regression analyses: 4 IVs, 1 DV
4. DV: Teacher classroom behavior
IV: enjoyment/fun in life
IV: satisfaction with personal achievements
IV: vigor/good health
Correlation and regression analyses: 3 IVs, 1 DV

To answer the research question of potential learner-internal differences, **gender** and **number of languages known** will be analyzed. A t-test will be performed for gender and the four variables of student attitude and motivation. Perceived teacher TEI and perceived teacher happiness will be treated as composite variables. Similarly, for the learner-internal variable of number of languages known, the four domains of student attitude and motivation will be tested and perceived teacher TEI and perceived teacher happiness will each be treated

as composite variables. A one-way ANOVA will be performed, with a post-hoc Tukey HSD test to further clarify the results.

3.7. Qualitative data collection: open-ended follow-up questions

The research design uses a small qualitative component comprised of follow-up questions in order to provide additional insight and context to the research (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). Participants voluntarily provided their contact information to participate, and five participants took part, however only four ($N = 4$) responses were considered interesting and relevant enough to report. The questions were formulated based on the research questions and for the elaboration of specific topics of interest (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). Specifically, the qualitative section aimed to explore students' general impressions of their teachers' TEI and happiness, and how important they thought teacher TEI and happiness are for FL teachers, based on their own experiences as FL students. Since the purpose of this research project is to explore student perceptions of their teachers, the open-ended questions were meant to provide a flesh and blood human touch to the quantitative data by including participants' views expressed in their own words, thereby adding an emic perspective to the etic dimension (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2016).

Those willing to participate supplied their email addresses at the end of the questionnaire and were later emailed a set of written, open-ended questions to answer in their own words. As with the quantitative section, there was an unavoidable self-selection bias. Logically, the students most willing to volunteer to take the time to answer follow-up questions would be the most positive and highly

motivated. Nevertheless, sufficient qualitative data was collected as a compliment to the quantitative, to get a sense of the respondents' takes on their own learning situations, in their own voices and with their own styles of talking (Creswell, 2015).

The qualitative section consisted of nine total questions. The first four questions asked participants about their general feelings towards their English teacher in relation to their own attitudes and motivation to study English in the present and in the future. The next question was meant to inquire about the students' perception of teacher TEI: respondents were asked whether or not they felt that the teacher could read the collective emotional atmosphere of the classroom. This question was included because a key factor of TEI is being able to read and manage the emotions of others. After that, questions were asked the student if they felt that the teacher was aware of the student's own moods and feelings. Respondents were also asked about how their teacher behaved in the classroom, and whether or not they felt that teacher happiness was important.

Some participants provided very brief answers while other answered at greater length. In total, the open-ended questions yielded 1,019 words. The qualitative data which will be included and analyzed in the next chapter was chosen based on how relevant and interesting the responses were. Some responses were not included in this thesis because they would not have made a valuable or substantial enough contribution, as determined by the researcher. Open-ended questions were as follows:

- 1. What were your general feelings about your English teacher?*
- 2. How did those feelings impact your motivation in the class?*

3. *Your motivation to study English in the future?*
4. *Your overall attitude toward English?*
5. *Do you think your English teacher was able to read the emotional atmosphere of the classroom? Why/why not?*
6. *Do you think your teacher was aware of your own moods and feelings? Why/why not?*
7. *Do you think it's important for an English teacher to be a happy person? Why/why not?*
8. *Did your English teacher's behavior have an effect on your performance in the class? If so, how?*
9. *Any other comments you would like to add?*

3.7.1. Description of participants

Table 2. Participant background information

Initials	Gender	Age	L1	Additional languages known	Age started learning English	Rating of own English level	Rating of own English level compared to peers
PN	F	21	Japanese	0	4	3	4
MM	F	34	Spanish	1	12	3	3
CV	F	21	French	2	11	5	4
CC	F	28	Chinese	1	12	4	4

All four participants rated their own level of English slightly higher than average and higher than average compared to their peers (Table 2). Participants volunteered to answer follow-up questions by supplying their emails at the end of

the online questionnaire. Although five participated, only four were deemed interesting and relevant enough to be included in the analysis. The group mean compared to overall mean for attitude towards English, attitude towards teacher, and positive feelings were somewhat higher than the overall mean, and anxiety was somewhat lower. **Perceived teacher happiness** was slightly lower, and **perceived teacher TEI** was slightly higher (Table 3).

Table 3. Participant group questionnaire means compared to overall questionnaire means

Initials	Attitude towards English	Attitude towards teacher	Positive feelings	Anxiety	Perceived teacher happiness	Perceived teacher TEI
PN	4.38	4.25	3.9	1.31	6.44	6.5
MM	4.13	3.75	4.11	2.54	4.44	4.64
CV	4.13	3.74	3.9	1.62	5.5	4.95
CC	3.79	4.17	4	2	3.94	5.32
<hr/>						
	Attitude towards English	Attitude towards teacher	Positive feelings	Anxiety	Perceived teacher happiness	Perceived teacher TEI
Overall mean (n = 129)	4.09	3.76	3.91	2.22	5.33	5.21
Group mean (n = 4)	4.11	3.98	3.98	1.87	5.08	5.35

3.7.2. Qualitative content analysis

The follow-up section of the questionnaire was devised after the collection of the quantitative data, taking into account the statistical trends that had already been identified (Creswell & Plano Clarke, 2011). This method “provided the researcher with emergent themes and interesting quotes that can be used to validate and embellish the quantitative survey findings” (Creswell & Plano Clarke, 2011: 81).

The method of analysis used to examine the qualitative data is best described as qualitative content analysis (QCA), which can flexibly utilize data from many different sources, with an aim “to develop new knowledge gleaned from context-sensitive interpretation of data” (Selvi, 2020, p. 445). In the current study,

the data was supplied via optional open-ended questions, which functioned almost as a form of ‘online interviews’ (Rose, McKinley, & Baffoe-Djan, 2020), whose analysis was approached with a research question already in mind and codes predetermined. What is specific to QCA is, as Selvi (2000) describes it, that “while the quantitative version places emphasis on *manifest meaning*, QCA takes this emphasis to the next level by developing *latent meaning*, which can be best understood in a context-dependent fashion.” (p. 442). Selvi also notes that “QCA is concerned with providing a comprehensive and nuanced description of the data under scrutiny. This necessitates the development of a coding frame based (and tried out) on the actual data of the main study.” (Selvi, p. 442). The coding frame essentially serves as the “backbone” used to categorize and make sense of the data.

Although the amount of data collected ended up being smaller than intended, a theory driven approach was employed, therefore the analytical procedure was based on the steps outlined by Selvi (2020) for the deductive approach to QCA. First, the researcher established the research question and familiarized herself with the data. Then a coding scheme was put into place, based on the quantitative results previously analyzed, with themes pre-established. Hypotheses were then tested, and finally the results were reported.

3.8. Summary

This thesis is primarily quantitative, with qualitative data used to add flavor to the statistical results. The quantitative data collection consisted of a six-part questionnaire administered online, meant to assess the attitudes and motivation of

adult ESL/EFL learners and their perceptions of their teachers' emotional intelligence and happiness. The purpose of the questionnaire is to draw meaningful connections between students' own feelings towards the target language and their attitudes toward their language teacher.

The quantitative section, consisting of 9 open-ended questions plays a more minor role, providing personal narrative and individual experience in support of the quantitative data. The questions were composed based on the results of the questionnaire, and were administered in the months after the questionnaire was taken. The quantitative findings are used to answer the main research questions while the qualitative element is limited in scope and just adds a burst of color to the quantitative data.

Chapter 4. Findings

This chapter provides an overview of the results of the quantitative data collection from the online questionnaire, and the supporting results from the qualitative data collection from the follow-up written questions. The focus of this chapter is to explore the relationships between the independent variables of **perceived teacher TEI, perceived teacher happiness**) and the dependent variables of **student attitude and motivation (positive feelings, attitude towards the teacher, attitude towards English, and anxiety)**. The relationship between the composite independent variables and the dependent variable of teacher **classroom behavior** will also be explored. Pearson's correlations will be used to look for significant connections, followed by stepwise multiple regression analyses to look for predictions of variance of the dependent variables.

A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test showed slightly non normal distribution for the dependent variables, however Q-Q plots showed nearly normal distribution for the dependent variables, the four factors of student attitude and motivation: **attitude toward the teacher, attitude towards English, positive feelings, and anxiety**, and the dependent variable of **classroom behavior**, so the more powerful parametric tests were chosen (Field, 2000).

In order to perform multiple regression analysis, certain assumptions must be met. First, the relationship between variables must be linear and with no significant outliers (Field, 2000). The second assumption is that predictors (independent variables) have little or no collinearity, in other words, the predictor variables should not be highly correlated. To check for that, collinearity diagnostics

were used. Third, errors need to be independent/uncorrelated, which can be checked using Durbin-Watson's analysis. Acceptable Durbin-Watson range is between 1 and 3 (Field, 2000), and all values fell within the accepted range, indicating a lack of autocorrelation. There must also be a lack of multicollinearity. Since there are many predictor variables, collinearity diagnostics were used to check for multicollinearity. The collinearity tolerance values for all predictors are $>.1$ indicating that there is no multicollinearity (Eddington, 2015, Szmrecsanyi, 2005). In terms of sample size, Stevens (2002) recommends 15 participants per predictor variable. By this criteria, since this study has 7 predictor variables and 129 participants, the sample size is large enough for a multiple regression analysis.

Finally, in order to perform linear regression analysis, there is a necessity for homoscedasticity, meaning that the regression line is about the same for all independent variables (Eddington, 2015). To show homoscedasticity, scatter plots and p-p plots will also be provided, showing that the points fall close to a straight line, indicating that residuals are normally distributed. In the p-p plots, sorted values of residuals are plotted against residual predicted values to show homoscedasticity. Each analysis will provide plots, graphs and tests that were used to show that the assumptions were met. Only statistically significant results will be included in the regression analyses.

The literature reviewed suggests that gender may play a role in foreign language learning and emotions in the classroom (Dewaele, MacIntyre, Boudreau & Dewaele, 2016), and the learner-internal variable of number of languages known has also been shown to affect foreign language learning, particularly in regard to

anxiety and enjoyment (Dewaele, 2007; Dewaele, 2010; Dewaele, et al. 2008; Kemp, 2001, 2007; Thompson & Lee, 2012). Therefore, this chapter will analyze the learner-internal independent variables of **gender** and **number of languages known** in regard to **student attitude and motivation**, **perceived teacher TEI**, and **perceived teacher happiness**. For the variable of **gender**, an independent samples t-test will be performed. The purpose of an independent t-test is used to examine whether or not means differences exist between two independent samples (Fields, 2000). Levene's test will be used to check that the variances are roughly equal. Equal variances can be assumed if the Levene's statistic is non-significant ($p > .05$).

For the **number of languages known**, a one-way ANOVA with post-hoc Tukey HSD will be performed. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is used to check whether or not significant differences exist between the means of at least three independent groups. The one-way ANOVA indicates whether or not there is a difference among groups, and the post-hoc Tukey test is used to determine which group is different. (Fields, 2000).

The basis of the quantitative data of this study is the web questionnaire. The qualitative data relies on optional open-ended questions which were supplied by volunteers via email. In order to analyze the qualitative data and answer the research question of how important teacher TEI and teacher happiness are to students, qualitative content analysis (QCA) (Selvi, 2020) was used to illustrate the predetermined themes and explore contextualized meaning using selected quotations from respondents' answers.

4.1 Quantitative descriptive analysis

As mentioned in the methodology chapter, the questionnaire administered to participants consisted of several sections. The first section gathered basic demographic data about the participants and asked them about their background as learners of English (described in detail in chapter 3). The section on demographic information included 15 items, and the LexTALE section which included 63 items. After that, the first main section of the questionnaire was meant to measure **student attitude and motivation** using a construct adapted from the AMTB (Gardner, 1985), with responses measured on a 5-point Likert scale. This section inquired about how much students enjoy and look forward to their English class, how motivated they feel to keep study English after the course ends, how good they think their teacher is, and how anxious they feel using English both inside and outside the classroom. Unlike the original AMTB, sections dealing with homework and parental support were entirely omitted since the respondents were all over the age of 18. The overall scores for **student attitude and motivation** as a composite variable were on the high end ($M = 4.71$, $SD = .52$), indicating that respondents generally had good attitudes and high levels of motivation to learn English. The four subsections of **student attitude and motivation** asked about **attitude towards the teacher**, **attitude towards English**, **positive feelings**, and **anxiety**.

4.1.1. Student attitude and motivation

In the first subsection, **attitude towards the teacher**, respondents tended to feel generally positive about their teacher ($M = 3.76$, $SD = .63$). In the next

subsection **attitude towards English**, respondents tended to feel positive about English ($M = 4.09$, $SD = .52$), indicating that their attitudes towards the target language were generally quite high. In the subsection on **positive feelings**, they reported experiencing a high degree of positive feelings related to their English class ($M = 3.91$, $SD = .65$). and conversely, reported generally experiencing generally low levels of **anxiety** ($M = 2.22$, $SD = .70$). This could be due to the fact that students were required to be of at least intermediate to high level English proficiency, and the mostly positive responses could also be explained by an unavoidable self-selection bias.

4.1.2. Perceived teacher TEI

The section on **perceived teacher TEI** was based on the TEIQue 360° SF (Petrides & Furnham, 2006), a test meant for an observer to quantify the TEI of another person. The four factors of TEI were kept consistent with the original construct and measured on a 7-point Likert scale. The first factor of TEI the construct measured was **sociability**, which asked questions about teacher friendliness and effectiveness at dealing with others. It asked about how well teachers stand up for themselves and whether they tend to “back down” even when they know they are right. This factor also dealt with how effectively teachers were able to influence the emotions of others, and if they were good negotiators. For this factor, respondents reported ($M = 5.18$, $SD = .83$), meaning that they generally deemed their teachers rather highly sociable.

The next TEI factor that the construct aimed to measure was **self-control**, which asked respondents how well their teachers were able to deal with stress,

regulate their own emotions, how often they seemed to change their minds, and how effective their strategies were for controlling their own emotions. The respondents reported generally high levels of **self-control** for their teachers ($M = 5.20$, $SD = 1.23$), indicating that they tended to find their teachers able to control and effectively regulate their own emotions.

The next factor of TEI was **emotionality**, which asked respondents how well their teachers could see things from the perspective of others, how effectively they could communicate their own emotions to other, how well they understand their own emotions, and how affection they probably were in their relationships with others. The results showed that respondents felt that generally their teachers had high levels of emotionality ($M = 5.06$, $SD = 1.14$), though not as high as the other three factors of TEI.

The fourth and final factor of TEI measured by the questionnaire was **wellbeing**, asking respondents how much their teacher seemed to enjoy life, whether they had a gloomy perspective, and how self-confident they appeared to be. Respondents reported that their teachers' wellbeing was quite high ($M = 5.51$, $SD = 1.18$), which means they found their teachers to be generally happy, healthy, and self-confident.

4.1.3. Perceived teacher happiness

The next section of the questionnaire asked respondents to rate **perceived teacher happiness**, using a construct adapted from the Oxford Happiness Inventory (Argyle & Hill, 1989), with responses measured on a 7-point Likert scale. The original construct was meant to be self-reported, however for the purpose of

this research it was adapted to be observer-reported so that students could gauge their impressions of their teachers' happiness. As a composite variable, respondents reported their teachers' happiness to be generally high ($M = 5.33$, $SD = 1.07$). The happiness section consisted of three subsections.

The first subsection of happiness was **enjoyment/fun in life**. Respondents were asked if their teacher seemed to find beauty in things, laugh a lot, experience joy and elation, and most directly, if their teacher seems happy. The results showed rather high levels ($M = 5.39$, $SD = 1.18$), indicating that the respondents felt their teachers seemed to be generally happy and enjoy their lives more than average.

The second subsection of happiness was **vigor/good health**. This section asked respondents such questions as whether they felt their teacher seemed generally well rested and mentally fully alert. The respondents reported somewhat high levels ($M = 5.18$, $SD = 1.03$), though of the three subsections, **vigor/good health** was the lowest score.

The third factor of happiness that the respondents were asked about was **satisfaction with personal achievements**. This section asked respondents if they felt that their teacher seemed to find teaching rewarding and seemed to be pleased with themselves. The results were quite high ($M = 5.59$, $SD = 1.27$), the highest of the three subsections. This finding indicates that respondents felt that their teachers seemed very satisfied with their own life achievements and seemed to enjoy and appreciate being teachers.

4.1.4. Teacher classroom behavior

The fourth section of the questionnaire asked questions about teachers' **classroom behavior**. Questions in this section asked how often the teacher let students work independently, how exciting and stimulating the teacher made classes, how much the teacher seemed to enjoy lively students, how fairly the teacher treated students and how harshly teachers dealt with correcting student errors. Overall, the respondents reported high scores for teacher behavior, indicating that their teachers behaved positively in class. ($M = 5.53$, $SD = 1.11$).

4.2. Quantitative analysis results

4.2.1. Perceived teacher TEI

RQ 1. The first research question asked about the connection between perceived teacher TEI and student attitudes and motivation, and more specifically, which independent variable(s) of perceived teacher TEI predict each dependent variable of student attitudes and motivation.

The researcher hypothesized that how students perceive their teachers' TEI will be strongly linked to their attitudes and motivation, and the TEI factor of **sociability**, which deals with friendliness and how well people relate to others, will be the significant predictor of all aspects of student attitude and motivation. To test the hypothesis and explore the question further, a Pearson's correlation analysis was conducted between the independent variables of **perceived teacher TEI** and the dependent variables of **student attitude and motivation**.

Pearson's correlation analysis (Table 4) showed that all factors of **perceived teacher TEI** are significantly correlated with the four domains of student attitude and motivation, with the exception of teacher **wellbeing** and student **anxiety**. In other words, students' anxiety was not linked to how they perceived their teachers' health and overall wellbeing.

Since there are four dependent variables, four separate stepwise multiple regression analyses will be performed, one for each dependent variable. In each analysis, the necessary assumption needed to perform multiple regression analysis are shown and explained.

Stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to find out how much variance in **student attitude and motivation** (the dependent variable) could be explained by the independent variable **perceived teacher TEI** (Paltridge & Phakiti, 2015: 41). The necessary assumptions were met in order to perform a multiple regression, as shown by the P-P plot (and scatter plot (Figure 1) showing homoscedasticity (Field, 2000). The Durbin-Watson value was between the acceptable threshold of 1 and 3 (Field, 2000: 874). The collinearity diagnostics showed that multi-collinearity was not an issue with the independent values, as tolerance eigenvalues were .407 (Szmrecsanyi, 2005: 142).

Table 4. Pearson's correlation between perceived teacher TEI and student attitude and motivation

	Attitude Towards Teacher	Attitude Towards English	Positive Feelings	Anxiety
Teacher Wellbeing	.538**	.277**	.289**	-.164
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.001	.000	.063
Teacher Self-Control	.625**	.276**	.314**	-.197*
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.002	.000	.026
Teacher Emotionality	.536**	.318**	.314**	-.301**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.001
Teacher Sociability	.654**	.320**	.397**	-.262**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.003

*p < 0.05

4.2.1.1. Attitude towards the teacher

All variables of perceived teacher TEI were significantly correlated with **attitude towards the teacher**. In the multiple regression analysis (Table 5), the Durbin-Watson value (1.97) and the collinearity diagnostics eigenvalue (1.00) show that there was no autocorrelation or multicollinearity, and the normality and residual plots indicate the presence of linearity and homoscedasticity. (Figure1)

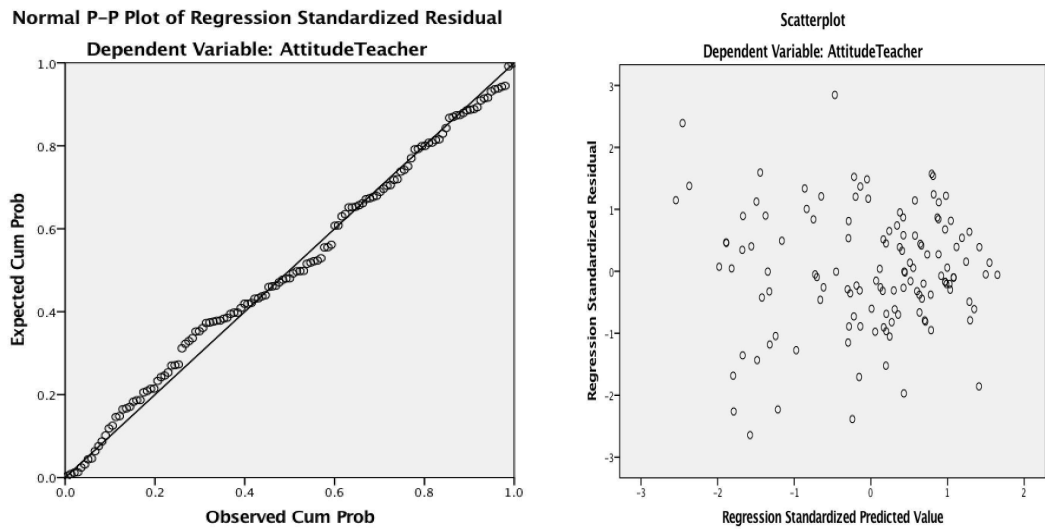
All TEI factors had a significant relationship with attitude towards the teacher, so they were all included in a multiple linear regression analysis. It revealed a significant equation for the two TEI factors of **sociability** and **self-control**, which taken together predict 46% of the variance of **attitude towards the teacher** (Adjusted $R^2 = .455$, ($F(1,127) = 94.92$, $p < .001$). a large effect size

(Plonsky & Ghanbar, 2018). The strongest predictor was teacher **sociability** (Beta = .424, $p < .0001$), explaining 42.3% of variance, followed by teacher **self-control** (Beta = .298, $p < .0001$), explaining an addition 3.6% of variance. The independent variables of **self-control** and **emotionality** did not meet statistical significance. In other words, students who perceive their teacher to be more sociable and in control of their own emotions had better attitudes towards them.

Table 5. Regression analysis for attitude towards teacher

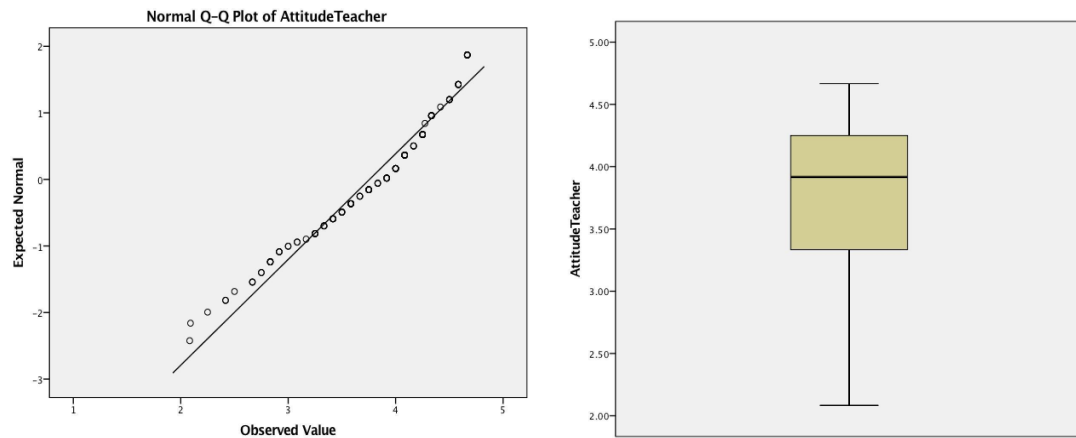
Predictor(s)	Adjusted R ²	F	p	β	Durbin-Watson	Collinearity diagnostics Tolerance
Sociability	.423	21.70	.000	.654		1.000
Sociability and Self-control	.455	11.77	.000	.424	1.973	.407
				.298		.407
Dependent variable: Attitude towards teacher						
Predictors: Sociability, Self-control						

Figure 1. Normality P-P plot and homoscedasticity scatterplot for attitude towards teacher



The distribution for **attitude towards teacher** showed a nearly normal pattern and a box-and-whisker plot showed that attitudes towards the teacher skewed somewhat positively, with no significant outliers (Figure 2). This positive skew could be explained by a self-selection bias on the part of the teachers and the students. In collected data, the researcher asked teachers of ESL/EFL to administer the questionnaire to their students. Most likely, the teachers who felt that they had the most positive relationships with their students were the ones most willing to ask them to participate. Likewise, those students who felt more positively about their teachers were probably more likely to spend the time taking the survey.

Figure 2. Normality Q-Q Plot and Box-and-Whisker Plot



4.2.1.2. Attitude towards English

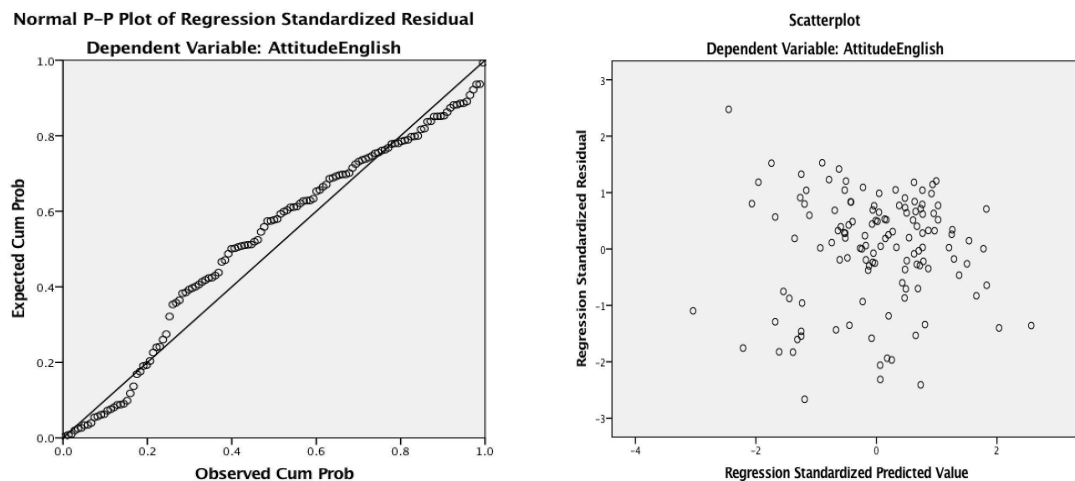
All factors of TEI were linked to attitude towards English: emotionality, sociability, wellbeing and self-control, and were therefore included in the multiple regression analysis (Table 6). However, the only significant predictor of **attitude towards English** was perceived teacher **sociability**. The Durbin-Watson value was between the acceptable range of 1 and 3, and the collinearity eigenvalue of 1.00 indicated that multicollinearity was not an issue. A significant equation was found (Adjusted $R^2 = .095$, ($F(1,127) = 14.496$, $p < .0001$), indicating that **sociability** predicted 9.5% of the variance of students' **attitudes towards English**, a medium effect size (Plonsky & Ghanbar, 2018). In other words, a teacher's friendliness and good relationship with students has the power to affect how students feel about the target language.

Table 6. Regression analysis for attitude towards English

Predictor(s)	Adjusted r^2	F	p	β	Durbin- Watson	Collinearity diagnostics tolerance
Sociability	.095	14.50	.000	.320	1.462	1.000

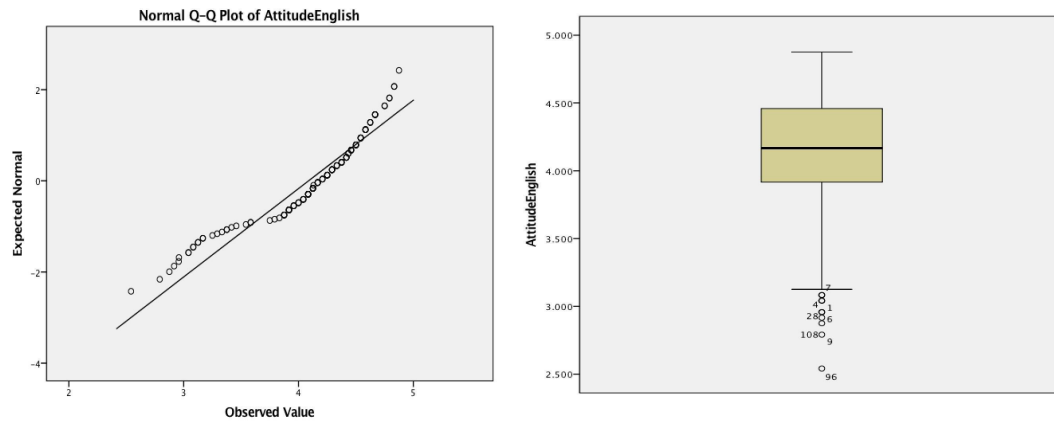
Dependent variable: Attitude Towards English
Predictor: Sociability

Figure 3. Normality P-P plot and homoscedasticity scatterplot for attitude towards English



The distribution for **attitude towards English** showed a nearly normal distribution and the box-and-whisker plot showed outliers on the negative end, indicating that some respondents had more negative attitudes towards English than the average, though the number of outliers was not significant. (Figure 4)

Figure 4. Normality Q-Q Plot and Box-and-Whisker Plot



4.2.1.3. Positive feelings

Pearson's correlation analysis (Table 4) showed that all four factors of **perceived teacher TEI** correlate with student **positive feelings**, with teacher **sociability** showing the strongest correlation. To check which variable of **perceived teacher TEI** predicted student **positive feelings**, a multiple regression analysis (Table 7) was performed. The Durbin-Watson value of 1.41 was within the acceptable range, and the collinearity diagnostics eigenvalue of 1.000 shows that multicollinearity was not an issue. A significant regression equation was found for **positive feelings** (Adjusted $R^2 = .151$, ($F(1, 127) = 23.787$, $p < .0001$) with sociability predicting 15.1% of the variance of student positive feelings, a medium effect size (Plonsky & Ghanbar, 2018). The TEI factors of **wellbeing**, **emotionality**, and **self-control** were excluded in the multiple regression analysis. In other words, while all factors of perceived teacher TEI were significantly linked to student **positive feelings**, only the factor of perceived teacher **sociability** could predict how positively students felt in class. This result is unsurprising considering

that sociability encompasses teacher friendliness and how well teachers related to their students overall. Student positive feelings included such emotions as enjoyment.

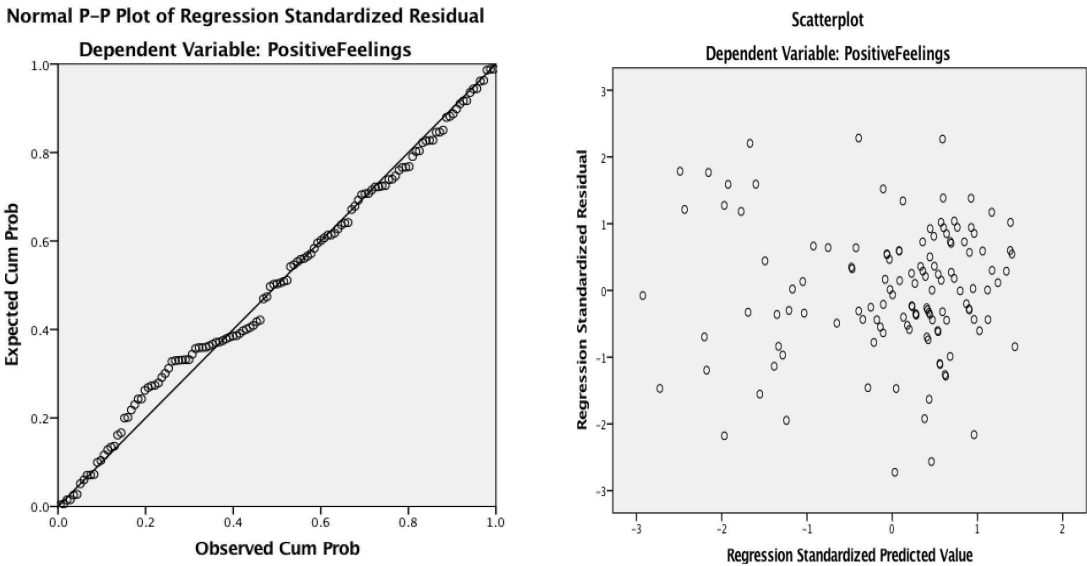
Table 7. Regression analysis for positive feelings

Predictor(s)	Adjusted r^2	F	p	β	Durbin-Watson	Collinearity diagnostics tolerance
Sociability	.151	23.79	.000	.397	1.41	1.000

Dependent variable: Positive feelings

Predictor: Sociability

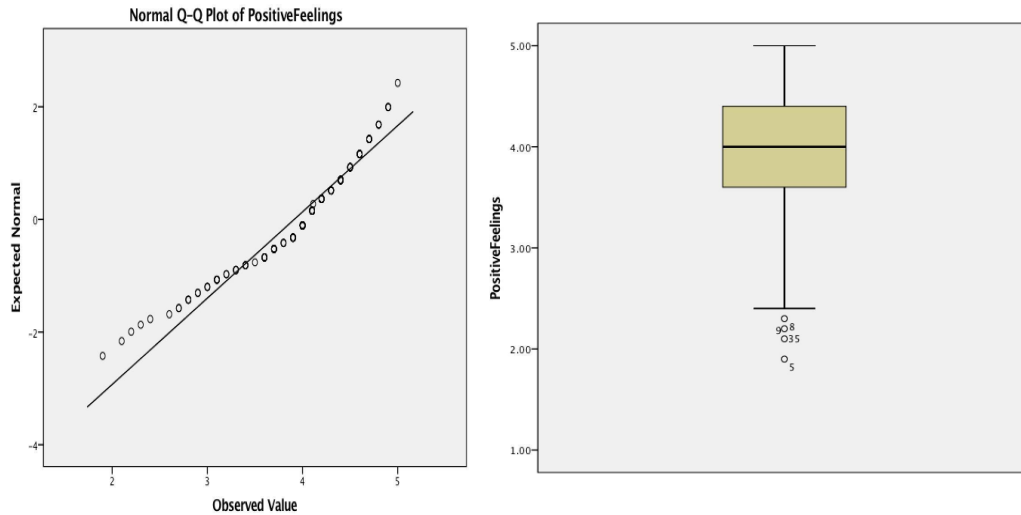
Figure 5. Normality P-P plot and homoscedasticity scatterplot for positive feelings



The Q-Q plot for distribution showed a mostly normal pattern with some outliers on the positive and negative ends and the box-and-whisker plot showed that there were mild outliers on the negative end, indicating that some respondents

had less positive feelings than the average, though the outliers were not significant. (Figure 6)

Figure 6. Normality Q-Q Plot and Box-and-Whisker Plot



4.2.1.4. Anxiety

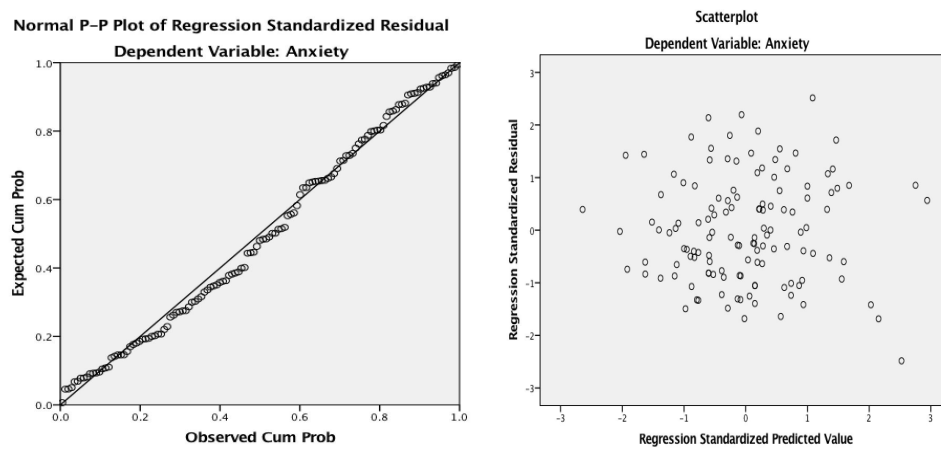
A Pearson's correlation analysis revealed that anxiety correlated significantly with **self-control**, **emotionality**, and **sociability** but not with **well-being**. **Self-control**, **emotionality**, and **sociability** were therefore included in the multiple regression analysis (Table 8). The Durbin-Watson value was in the acceptable range of 1 and 3 and collinearity diagnostics eigenvalue of 1.000, suggests multicollinearity was not a problem. A significant equation emerged (Adjusted $R^2 = .083$, ($F(1,127) = 12.615$, $p < .001$), with for perceived teacher **emotionality** predicting 8.3% of the variance of student **anxiety**, a small to medium effect size (Plonsky & Ghanbar, 2018). The independent variables of teacher **sociability**, **emotionality**, and **self-control** were excluded.

Table 8. Regression analysis for anxiety

Predictor(s)	Adjusted r^2	F	p	β	Durbin-Watson	Collinearity diagnostics tolerance
Emotionality	.083	12.62	.001	-.301	1.533	1.000

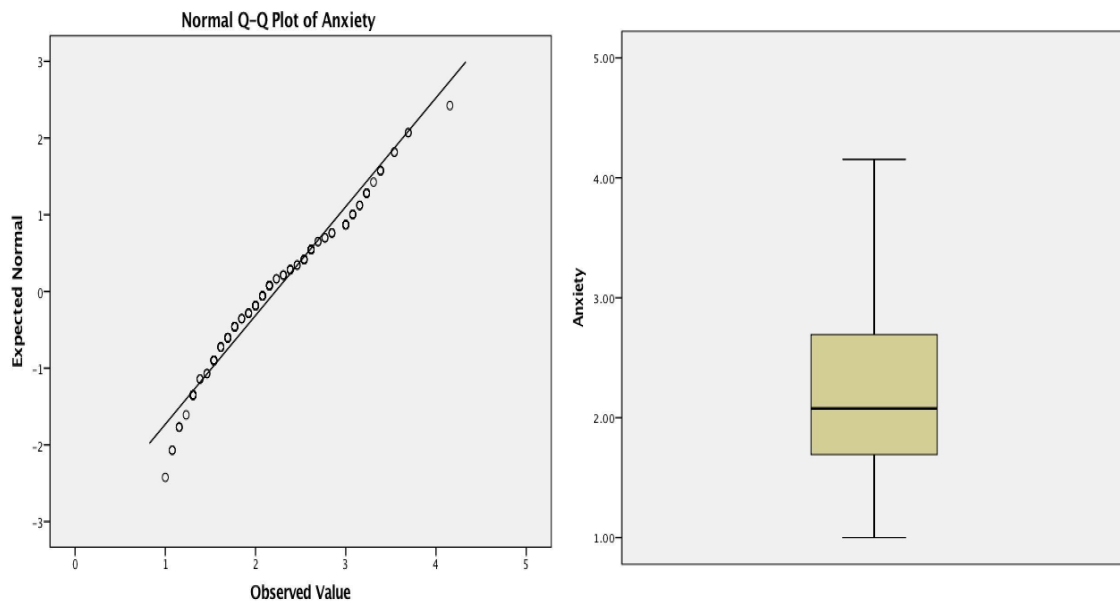
Dependent variable: Anxiety
 Predictor: Emotionality

Figure 7. Normality P-P plot and homoscedasticity scatter plot for anxiety



The Q-Q plot for anxiety showed a near normal distribution and the box-and-whisker plot showed no significant outliers (Figure 8). Values for anxiety were skewed negatively, indicating that respondents had generally low levels of anxiety about learning English. All respondents were required to be of at least intermediate level English proficiency to participate in the study, which might explain their low levels of anxiety. This finding will be discussed further in the next chapter.

Figure 8. Normality Q-Q Plot and Box-and-Whisker Plot



4.2.1.5. Returning to the hypothesis of RQ1

It was hypothesized that student perceptions of their teachers' TEI will be strongly linked to their attitudes and motivation, and the TEI factor of **sociability**, will emerge as the strongest predictor of all aspects of student attitude and motivation.

To answer RQ1, all factors of perceived teacher TEI were linked to student attitude and motivation. The significant predictors of attitude towards the teacher were both **sociability** and **self-control**. In analyzing student attitudes toward English, **sociability** was not shown to be a significant predictor, however **vigor/good health** was shown to be a predictor. For positive feelings, **sociability** was the significant predictor, as hypothesized. For anxiety, teacher emotionality

was the significant negative predictor. Thus, the hypothesis was partly confirmed.

Sociability did emerge as a significant predictor but not the only one.

The following section will explore the second research question, which deals with perceived teacher happiness and student attitude and motivation. Perceived teacher happiness is divided into three variables. The results of the statistical analyses showing the relationships between the dependent and independent variables will be shown.

4.2.2. Perceived teacher happiness

RQ2 has a similar structure as RQ1: What is the connection between perceived teacher happiness and student attitudes and motivation, and which variable(s) of perceived teacher happiness predict each independent variable of student attitudes and motivation? The hypothesis is that teachers perceived as being happier will also have happier students who report higher levels of positive emotions. The literature reviewed has indicated a strong connection between teacher EI and student happiness and reduced anxiety but there is a dearth of literature on student perception of teacher happiness and student self-reported anxiety. However, Dewaele et al. (2018) did find that attitudes towards the teacher were not a significant predictor of student anxiety. It is expected that the happiness factor of enjoyment/fun in life will be the significant predictor of all aspects of student attitude and motivation.

A Pearson's correlation analysis (Table 9) showed that all aspects of **perceived teacher happiness** were positively linked to **attitude towards teacher**,

attitude towards English, and **positive feelings**. However, only **vigor/good health** was negatively linked to **anxiety**.

Table 9. Pearson's correlation between perceived teacher happiness and student attitude and motivation

Pearson's correlation

	Attitude Towards Teacher	Attitude Towards English	Positive Feelings	Anxiety
Satisfaction with Personal Achievements	.503**	.258**	.278**	-.129
p (2-tailed)	.000	.003	.001	.144
Enjoyment/Fun in Life	.496**	.226**	.194*	-.152
p (2-tailed)	.000	.010	.028	.085
Vigor/Good Health	.498**	.258**	.256**	-.207*
p (2-tailed)	.000	.003	.003	.019

*Correlation is significant with a p value above 0.01

4.2.2.1. Attitude towards teacher

All happiness factors had a significant relationship with attitude towards teacher and were therefore included in a multiple regression analysis (Table 10). The value for the Durbin-Watson was 1.852 which is acceptable and shows no autocorrelations (Field, 2000: 874) and collinearity diagnostics value of 1.00 showed that multicollinearity was not an issue (Szmrecsanyi, 2005: 142). A significant equation emerged (Adjusted $R^2 = .25$, ($F(1,127) = 17.63$, $p < .001$), with **satisfaction with personal achievements** predicting 25% of the variance of

attitude towards teacher, which is a large effect size (Plonsky & Oswald, 2014). Perceived teacher happiness factors of **enjoyment/fun in life**, and **vigor/good health** did not explain unique variance in **attitude towards teacher**.

Table 10. Regression analysis for attitude towards teacher

Predictor(s)	Adjusted r^2	F	p	β	Durbin- Watson	Collinearity diagnostics tolerance
Satisfaction with Personal Achievements	.247	42.96	.000	.503	1.835	1.000

Dependent variable: Attitude Towards Teacher
Predictors: Satisfaction with Personal Achievement

4.2.2.2. Attitude towards English

All happiness factors correlated with attitude towards English and were included in the multiple regression analysis (Table 11). The Durbin-Watson value (1.34) was in the acceptable range (Field, 2000: 874), and the collinearity diagnostics (1.00) showed that multicollinearity did not occur (Szmrecsanyi, 2005: 142). A significant regression equation emerged (Adjusted $R^2 = .059$ ($F, 1, 127$) = 9.08, $p < .003$) with **vigor/good health** predicting 6% of the variance, which is a small effect size. The independent variables of **satisfaction with personal achievements** and **enjoyment/fun in life** did not explain unique variance. It thus seems that students who perceived their teacher to be in better overall health reported more positive attitudes about English.

Table 11. Regression analysis for attitude towards English

Predictor(s)	Adjusted r^2	F	p	β	Durbin- Watson	Collinearity diagnostics tolerance
Vigor/Good Health	.059	9.08	.003	.258	1.337	1.000

Dependent variable: Attitude towards English
Predictors: Vigor/Good Health

4.2.2.3. Positive Feelings

All happiness factors were correlated with positive feelings and were included in a multiple regression analysis (Table 12). The Durbin-Watson value (1.4) was within the acceptable range showing no autocorrelation (Field, 2000: 874), and the collinearity diagnostics value (1.0) showing that autocorrelation and multicollinearity was not an issue (Szmrecsanyi, 2005: 142). A significant equation emerged (Adjusted $R^2 = .070$ ($F(1, 127) = 10.65$, $p < .001$), with **satisfaction with personal achievements** predicting 7% of the variance, a small to medium effect size. In other words, the more satisfied students perceived their teachers to be, the more positive feelings they themselves reported.

Table 12. Regression analysis for positive feelings

Predictor(s)	Adjusted r^2	F	p	β	Durbin- Watson	Collinearity diagnostics tolerance
Satisfaction with Personal Achievements	.070	10.65	.001	.278	1.402	1.000

Dependent variable: Positive Feelings
Predictors: Satisfaction with Personal Achievement

4.2.2.4. Anxiety

A Pearson's correlation analysis (Table 9) showed that the only factor of teacher happiness that was negatively linked to **anxiety** was **vigor/good health**. Therefore, the other independent variables were not included in further analysis. The Durbin-Watson value of 1.50 was acceptable (Field, 2000) and the collinearity diagnostics value of 1.00 indicated that there was no multicollinearity (Szmrecsanyi, 2005: 142). A significant regression equation emerged (Adjusted R^2 = .035 ($F(1, 127) = 5.69$, $p < .019$), showing that **vigor/good health** predicted 3.5% of the variance of anxiety. This is a small effect size. This result means that the healthier and more vigorous students perceived their teachers to be, the less anxiety they experienced.

Table 13. Regression analysis for anxiety

Predictor(s)	Adjusted r^2	F	p	β	Durbin- Watson	Collinearity diagnostics tolerance
Vigor/Good Health	.035	5.69	.019	-.201	1.502	1.000

Dependent variable: Anxiety
Predictors: Vigor/Good Health

4.2.2.5. Returning to the hypothesis of RQ2

With regard to perceived teacher happiness and student attitudes and motivation, the researcher hypothesized that all factors of happiness would be linked with the factors of attitudes and motivation. Since there is practically no literature that deals explicitly with perceived teacher happiness, it was difficult to formulate a hypothesis. Based on existing literature on FLE and the teacher's strong influence, it was expected that the happiness factor of **enjoyment/fun in life** would be the strongest predictor of **attitude towards English**, **attitude towards teacher**, and **positive feelings**. It was expected that no factor of happiness would predict **anxiety**. This prediction was based on Dewaele et al.'s (2018) study which found that how students felt about the teacher was not a significant predictor of FLCA.

The hypothesis was partially proven: perceived teacher happiness was indeed linked to student attitudes and motivation, however unexpected happiness factors proved to be significant predictors. The strongest factor in predicting **attitude towards teacher** was the happiness factor of **satisfaction with personal achievements**, which also predicted **attitude towards English**. The happiness

factor of **vigor/good health** predicted student **positive feelings**. Contrary to the hypothesis, the happiness factor of **vigor/good health** also negatively predicted **anxiety**.

4.2.3. Classroom behavior and perceived teacher TEI

RQ3. This question aimed to explore whether or not perceived teacher TEI and perceived teacher happiness has an influence on how students report their teacher's classroom behavior.

A Pearson's correlation analysis (Table 14) between the independent variables of **perceived teacher TEI** and the dependent variable of teacher **classroom behavior** indicate that all independent variables were significantly linked to how students reported their teachers' classroom behavior.

Table 14. Pearson's correlation between perceived teacher TEI and teacher classroom behavior

Pearson's correlation		Classroom Behavior
Teacher Wellbeing	.	.678**
Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
Teacher Self-Control		.716**
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
Teacher Emotionality		.671**
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
Teacher Sociability		.777**
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000

**Correlation is significant with a p value above 0.01

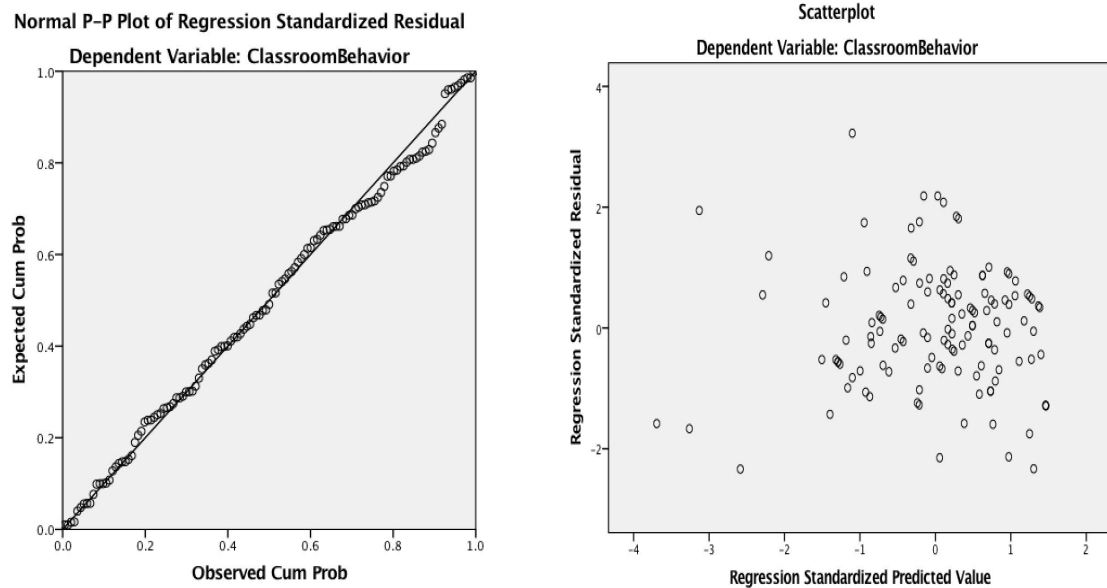
All TEI factors had a significant relationship with teacher classroom behavior and were therefore included in the multiple linear regression analysis (Table 15). The Durbin-Watson value (1.8) was within the acceptable range showing no autocorrelation (Field, 2000: 874), and the collinearity diagnostics value (1.0) showed that autocorrelation and multicollinearity were not an issue (Szmrecsanyi, 2005: 142). A significant regression equation emerged for classroom behavior (Adjusted $R^2 = .645$ ($F(1, 127) = 193.65$, $p < .000$), with **sociability** and **wellbeing** predicting 64.5% of the variance, a very large effect size. In other words, the teacher's perceived friendliness and wellbeing had a strong influence on how students reported their classroom behavior.

Table 15. Regression analysis for perceived teacher TEI and teacher classroom behavior

Predictor(s)	Adjusted r^2	F	p	β	Durbin-Watson	Collinearity diagnostics tolerance
Sociability	.601	193.65	.000	.777		1.000
Sociability and Wellbeing	.645	117.38	.000	.585 .289	1.816	.559 .559

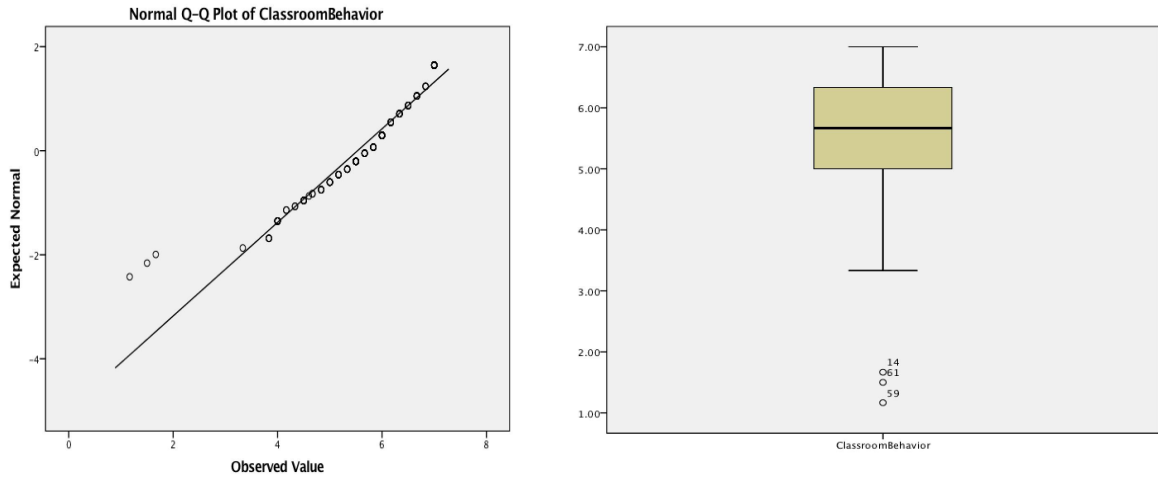
Dependent variable: Classroom behavior
Predictors: Sociability, Wellbeing

Figure 9. Normality P-P plot and homoscedasticity scatter plot for classroom behavior



The Q-Q plot for classroom behavior showed a nearly normal distribution, and the box-and-whisker plot (Figure 10) indicates that in general, responses skewed positively, however there were some outliers on the negative end, meaning that some respondents had more negative impressions of their teachers' classroom behavior than average.

Figure 10. Normality Q-Q Plot and Box-and-Whisker Plot



4.2.4 Classroom behavior and perceived teacher happiness

A Pearson's correlation analysis (Table 16) revealed a significant relationship between the independent variables of **perceived teacher happiness** and **classroom behavior**. Students who perceived their teachers to be happier reported more positive classroom behavior from them.

Table 16. Pearson's correlation between perceived teacher happiness and teacher classroom behavior

Pearson's correlation	Classroom Behavior
Satisfaction with Personal Achievements	.659**
p (2-tailed)	.000
Enjoyment/Fun in Life	.754**
p (2-tailed)	.000
Vigor/Good Health	.734**
p (2-tailed)	.000

**Correlation is significant with a p value above 0.01

All happiness factors had a significant relationship with classroom behavior and were therefore included in the multiple linear regression analysis (Table 17). The Durbin-Watson value was in the accepted range of between 1 and 3, showing no autocorrelation (Field, 2000: 874), and the collinearity diagnostics value (1.0) showed that autocorrelation and multicollinearity were not an issue (Szmrecsanyi, 2005: 142). A significant regression equation was found for classroom behavior (Adjusted $R^2 = .603$ ($F(1, 127) = 167.178$, $p < .000$) with all three happiness variables predicting 60% of the variance, a large effect size. This finding shows that the happier students perceive their teachers to be, the more positively they report their teachers' classroom behavior.

Table 17. Regression analysis for perceived teacher happiness and teacher classroom behavior

Predictor(s)	Adjusted r^2	F	p	β	Durbin- Watson	Collinearity diagnostics tolerance
Enjoyment/fun In life	.565	167.178	.000	.392		1.000
Vigor/good health	.590	93.02	.000	.261	2.22	.258
Satisfaction with Personal achievements	.603	65.785	.000	.189		.446

Dependent variable: Classroom behavior

Predictors: Satisfaction with personal achievements, enjoyment/fun in life, vigor/good health

4.3. Learner-internal variables

RQ4. How are learner-internal variables of **gender** and **number of languages known** linked to student attitudes and motivation and students' perceptions of their teachers TEI and happiness?

To explore this question, the effect of the independent variables of **gender**, and **number of languages known** will be measured on six dependent variables: the four variables of **student attitude and motivation**, and the two composite variables of **perceived teacher trait EI** and **perceived teacher happiness**.

The relationship between the learner-internal variable of number of languages known and the four dependent variables **student attitude and motivation** will also be investigated.

4.3.1. Gender

An independent samples t-test was performed to check for gender differences. The results showed no statistically significant differences between males and females across the dependent variables (Table 18), meaning that both males and females reported similar levels of attitudes and motivation, and perceived their teachers' TEI and happiness in comparable ways.

Table 18. T-test for gender

	t-test (2-tailed)		
	t	df	p
Attitude towards English	1.86	125	0.066
Positive feelings	1.00	125	0.319
Attitude towards teacher	-0.65	125	0.519
Anxiety	-0.58	125	0.561
Perceived teacher TEI	-0.14	125	0.886
Perceived teacher happiness	-0.73	125	0.466

4.3.2. Number of languages known

The survey asked respondents how many languages they know in addition to their L1 and English. The question specified that their proficiency in the additional languages should be at least good enough to maintain a basic conversation. Since all respondents of the survey were required to be of at least intermediate level English proficiency to participate, they were all considered to be

bilingual. Therefore, additional languages known are in addition to their L1 and English. Proficiency of additional languages known was defined in the questionnaire as “proficient enough for at least a basic conversation.” Respondents were divided into three groups:

Group 1 = no additional languages (n = 31)

Group 2 = 1 additional language (n = 57)

Group 3 = 2 or more additional languages (n = 41)

One-way ANOVA (Table 19) was used to look at the effect of **number of languages known** on the dependent variables. For all ANOVAs, equality of variance was tested with Levene’s Statistic, which checks whether the variances are approximately equal in different groups (Field, 2013). The Levene’s Statistic were all above $p = .05$, indicating that equality of variance could be assumed.

Table 19. One-way ANOVA for number of languages known

	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Attitude towards English	2	1.68	.191
Positive feelings	2	1.15	.32
Attitude towards teacher	2	1.12	.33
Anxiety	2	3.18	.045
Perceived teacher TEI	2	4.86	.009
Perceived teacher happiness	2	1.84	.163

*Significant at the 05 level

A one-way ANOVA for number of languages known and the dependent variables showed a significant effect of number of languages known on anxiety ($F(2, 126) = 3.18, p = .045$), though the effect size was small ($\eta^2 = .048$). In other words, this finding shows that the more languages respondents knew, the lower their reported levels of anxiety. Descriptive statistics for **number of languages known** are listed in Table 20.

Table 20. Descriptive statistics for number of languages known

	Group	Mean	SD
Attitude towards English	1	3.95	0.57
	2	4.11	0.46
	3	4.17	0.53
Positive feelings	1	3.76	0.63
	2	3.97	0.62
	3	3.95	0.71
Attitude towards teacher	1	3.66	0.68
	2	3.85	0.58
	3	3.7	0.65
Anxiety	1	2.45	0.72
	2	2.23	0.67
	3	2.03	0.7
Perceived teacher happiness	1	5.1	1.15
	2	5.52	0.89
	3	5.25	1.19
Perceived teacher TEI	1	4.93	1.06
	2	5.49	0.77
	3	5.02	1.02

Findings from the Post-hoc Tukey HSD test (Table 21) reveal that Group 3, which consisted of individuals who reported knowing two or more additional languages, had significantly less **anxiety** than those who reported knowing one or no additional language(s).

Table 21. Post-hoc Tukey HSD for number of languages known and anxiety

	(A)group	(B)group	Mean Differences (A-B)	SE	Sig. (p)
Anxiety	1.00	2.00	.22	.15	.334
		3.00	.42*	.17	.035*
	2.00	1.00	-.22	.15	.334
		3.00	.20	.14	.355
	3.00	1.00	-.42*	.17	.035*
		2.00	-.20	.14	.355

* Significant at the .05 level

4.4. Qualitative findings

The aim of the fourth research question was to find out how important students felt TEI and happiness were in their language teachers. A detailed description of the four participants can be found in the methodology chapter (Chapter 3). The open-ended section was optional, and respondents were asked to supply their email address at the end of the questionnaire if they wanted to participate. A total of five people responded, however, only four respondents' answers were deemed relevant and interesting enough to be included in the quantitative analysis. Since this study relies primarily on quantitative data, the open-ended questions are meant to add a human touch to the data, by providing answers to questions in respondents' own words (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). The quantitative section is also meant to elaborate on specific topics of interest from the quantitative data collection (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011) and provide more granular details and a more nuanced understanding of how students' perceptions of teachers affect their own attitudes and motivation.

As previously stated, the analytic purpose was to gain insight into trends identified in the quantitative analysis. The open-ended questions which comprise the qualitative component were written after the collection of the survey results had been gathered, thus confirmatory analysis was used. The analysis was meant to be hypothesis-driven, guided by ideas and patterns which were already established by the quantitative data, and which the researcher wanted to further explore and assess.

4.4.1. Analyzing themes: open-ended questions

The quantitative component yielded a total of 1,019 words. Extracts were selected based on how informative participants' answers were. Qualitative content analysis (QCA) was used to explore the latent meaning of the responses. Because of the brevity of the data set, the scope of analysis was limited. As this study uses a confirmatory analytic approach, the themes were pre-identified only by the researcher based on trends in the qualitative data, and not independently audited. Themes were illustrated with selected quotes and elucidated in further detail. Subthemes were originally identified based on the responses collected, however because the qualitative data set is rather small and meant as a complement to the quantitative data, it was decided that exploring overarching main themes was a more appropriate choice. The three themes explored, in descending order of frequency, were: teacher behavior influencing students, teacher reading student emotion, and the interpersonal relationship with the teacher.

The first theme named was **teacher behavior influencing students** (frequency = 11). Extant research points towards a bidirectional relationship with

both teachers and students influencing each other mutually. Furthermore, emotional contagion has been shown to affect both teachers and students mutually in the classroom (particularly with regard to happiness). However, this thesis deals with the effects of teachers on student attitudes and motivation, not the other way around; thus the theme of teacher behavior influencing students was chosen.

The second theme dealt with the **ability of the teacher to read student emotion** (frequency = 4). This theme came about based on the quantitative results showing the influence of perceived teacher emotionality on student anxiety. The quantitative effect was small yet significant, implying that teachers who are perceived as being better able to accurately read student emotion might have the power to diminish student anxiety in the classroom. It must be noted that the effect size was indeed small, yet this was precisely why this theme was proposed. The result of perceived teacher emotionality on student anxiety was both interesting and unexpected, thus deemed worthy of further exploration in the open-ended questions.

The third theme was the **interpersonal relationship with the teacher** (frequency = 2). As stated in the Introduction chapter, the theoretical framework of this research is informed by relational theories of psychology, which position human relationships as the main driver of the psyche and behavior in general. The quantitative findings revealed that the teacher TEI factors of teacher sociability was highly influential in student attitudes and motivation, which led to the formation of open-ended questions meant to explore the theme of the interpersonal relationship.

4.4.1.1. Interpersonal relationship with teachers

Respondents were asked very directly what their feelings were about their English teacher. The importance of the interpersonal relationship between students and teachers was repeatedly affirmed in the participants' answers, emphasizing the importance of teachers going above and beyond their role as educators. One participant talked about how she admired her teacher before he was even her teacher, which led her to take his class. She points out that her teacher specifically showed an interest in her life, by asking her questions about herself and attempting to get to know her better, which made her feel validated:

PN, female, 28: When I met my teacher for the first time, he was not my English teacher yet. Even though it was the first time we talked, he began to ask me questions about me and we got to know each other. My teacher is a tall and bulky guy with a mustache so his looks intimidated me a little to be honest. However, I could tell that he is friendly from his voice and expressions. As I got to know him more, I began to want to take his class and I was finally able to take his class last semester.

The theme of the importance of the teacher taking a personal interest in the student's life can also be seen in the following response, in addition to the teacher being able to read the emotions of the students. The respondent also mentions that she met her teacher in a casual, friendly setting outside of class, which served to promote her positive feelings about the class.

MM, female, 34: I had not been able to go through a strong [motivational period], and the teacher took an interest in me, offered me five minutes to go buy a coffee and I wait a couple of minutes to start the class. After this, the class itself was also very rewarding, as she explained everything very well, joked and was aware of our reactions. I never leave class with doubts.

4.4.1.2. Teacher being able to ‘read’ the emotional atmosphere of the classroom

When asked whether or not the teacher could read the emotional atmosphere of the classroom, one respondent commented on her teacher’s sense of empathy and attempts to understand students’ thought:

PN, female, 28: In class, he really, really cares and tries to think from students’ perspectives. He values whether his students are having fun in class or not so he looks at students’ faces to see what we want to do. Additionally, I love how he makes us discuss in little groups after watching short films because I get to interact with the other students by doing so.

In response to the same question, another respondent wrote:

CV, female, 24: I think she was able to read the mood of the class, or at least she was smiling and present enough to set a pleasant atmosphere and motivate us.

Another respondent also noted how the teacher has an ability to divine what the students are thinking, even when they haven’t explicitly stated their feelings:

CC, female, 28: He is like a psychologist who can read your mind. He judges my feelings between the lines when I’m talking, even if I didn’t express my emotion directly.

4.4.1.3. Teacher behavior influencing students

Respondents mentioned how their teacher was able to affect them and motivate them through their classroom behavior. One respondent also mentioned her teacher’s own achievements as a motivating factor; although she did not particularly like the teacher, she was motivated by the fact that the teacher’s L1 was not English, yet they had achieved a very high level of proficiency.

CV, female, 24: *Classes were very interesting and entertaining thanks to her way of animating the lectures with interesting and concrete details or funny anecdotes.*

It has sort of reactivated my motivation to attend this kind of classes and made me participate a bit more than usual. My motivation to keep on studying English and my global attitude toward English have always been here, so this class did not especially impacted it, but it dealt with interesting aspects that I would not have thought of before.

CC, female, 28: *My English teacher is a non-native teacher. But his English is quite close to a native speaker, especially on the aspect of pronunciation and English thinking styles. So I really admire his English ability. Because of the admiration, I want my English to be as good as this teacher in the future.*

Another respondent echoes this theme, writing about how the teacher's use of unpredictability in the classroom is a motivating factor, echoing past research on the teacher's behavior as a source of FLE, specifically humor and unpredictability in the classroom (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). This respondent also writes about how she enjoys interacting with the group during class discussions, which has also been shown to increase FLE. She also appreciates her teacher's adeptness in selecting novel classroom material.

PN, female, 28: *I love how he makes us discuss in little groups after watching short films because I get to interact with other students by doing so...I did not lose my motivation all through last semester. I was excited to go to each class because I knew my teacher would introduce interesting short films. Most of materials he used were things I have not seen before (it's amazing how he does this) and, every time, he made sure that almost all the students have not seen those videos before we watch them as well.*

One participant whose English class was given in a large lecture hall with over 100 students commented that due to the sheer number of students in the class, the teacher simply wasn't able to focus on each student individually and

therefore could not read individual's emotions , but nonetheless the teacher's behavior had a positive effect on her.

CV, female, 24: It was a lecture with nearly one hundred people in the classroom, so she could not focus on some precise people but at least she was smiling and present. She made me participate a bit more than usual, but we were numerous and I preferred hearing the others and the teachers. Yet, it had an effect on my performance during the exams, indirectly thanks to the way of leading classes.

On the negative side, one respondent commented that her teacher had the power to provoke anxiety through his own behavior in the classroom, which she found rather intimidating. She describes how the teacher's excessive strictness is demotivating and diminishes her attention. Interestingly though, despite the anxiety he seems to cause her, she adds that she feels happy when he compliments her, which aligns with the aforementioned theme of the importance of teachers taking a personal interest in their students:

CC, female, 28: He is very strict. Sometimes, I feel relaxed if the class is cancelled. Sometimes the pressure I feel from his attitude drive my attention away uncontrollably. And avoid answering his questions. I feel a little stressful if the teacher's expression shows he didn't understand what I said. And my brain will become blank when he tries to see my memo. I feel happy when he says some compliments to me.

This result was an interesting finding, and one that was unanticipated. While CC has rather negative feelings about her teacher, she nonetheless feels happy when he gives her personal compliments. While her teacher has the power to stir anxiety and apprehension, she is also motivated by his own English ability, recognizing the effort and perseverance necessary for an LX user to achieve his level. CC's mixed feelings point towards an interesting tension; she dislikes her

teacher, yet still appreciates his taking a personal interest in her and is still motivated by his accomplishments. Although the questionnaire does not ask participants about their teacher's English ability, this response supports the notion that LX English teachers can have a strong positive effect on their students by serving as a role model for language learning.

The open-ended questions asked respondents whether or not they thought happiness was an important characteristic for a language teacher. This question was included given the somewhat mixed results of the quantitative data. While responses that dealt with TEI were nearly unanimous, on the topic of teacher happiness, responses in the qualitative data were mixed. Three out of four felt that it is important for English teachers to be happy while one respondent didn't think that teacher happiness was necessarily so important. Those who felt teacher happiness was important mentioned that the teacher's mood sets the atmosphere of the classroom. One respondent brings up the effect of emotional contagion and being able to sense the teacher's emotions even when they are not expressed explicitly:

CC, female, 28: From my experiences, I think emotions can infect other people. If the teacher isn't a happy person, I can feel the pressure coming out from him, even he doesn't do it on purpose.

Likewise, another respondent agrees that teacher happiness is important because emotions are expressed by the teacher whether consciously or unconsciously.

CV, female, 24: Yes, and for any teacher, because it makes him/her give better classes, a lack of motivation would make him/her transmit (even unconsciously) negative emotions and energy.

The respondent who felt that teacher happiness was not that important stated:

PN, female, 28: Not necessarily I would say. If I could tell that the teacher likes to teach, likes his or her students, and/or interested in the topic he or she is teaching, then that would motivate me to participate (or at least listen) in the class.

While PN may not think teacher happiness is necessary, she does point out being able to tell whether or not the teacher likes to teach, which aligns with the quantitative data illustrating the importance of the perceived teacher happiness domain of teacher satisfaction with personal achievements. It is also worth noting that of all four respondents to the open-ended questions, PN scored her teacher highest in perceived happiness.

4.5. Connecting the quantitative and qualitative findings

It is crucial to re-emphasize that given the brevity of the qualitative data collected, the qualitative results must not be overstated. As mentioned previously, the qualitative data function primarily as an adornment of the quantitative—the proverbial icing on the cake. The other caveat that must be reaffirmed is the self-selection bias of the respondents to the qualitative data, which was even more pronounced than normal, given the method of the qualitative data collection: an optional survey, followed by voluntary follow-up questions at a later date.

The analyses of the quantitative data collected from the questionnaire indicate a strong effect of perceived teacher TEI on student attitudes and motivation, with the factor of teacher **sociability** emerging as a strong predictor. The TEI factor of **self-control** was a significant predictor of how students felt about the teacher, indicating that students prefer, or at least have a more positive attitude

towards teachers who were better able to control their own emotions in the classroom. The statistical results indicate that how students perceive their teachers' TEI does indeed have an effect on their own attitudes and motivation in the FL learning process and these findings were echoed in the responses to the open-ended questions. In their own words, respondents describe the importance of teacher TEI overall, as they say that more emotionally intelligent teachers are better able to read the students' individual emotions as well as the collective emotions of the classroom. The TEI factor of sociability deals with interpersonal relationships, and the qualitative data strongly suggest that students put a high premium on the quality of the interpersonal relationship they have with their language teacher; interpersonal relationships with the teacher was one of the key themes that emerged.

The TEI factor of **emotionality** was shown to negatively predict student anxiety in the FL classroom. Although the effect size was small, this finding was echoed in the qualitative findings. A key theme that emerged from the respondents' answers to the open-ended questions was the importance of teachers being able to read the students' emotions both individually and to accurately get a handle on the emotional atmosphere of the classroom, which can be attributed to the TEI factor of **emotionality**.

In the qualitative data, another key theme explored was the power of teacher behavior to influence students, both positively and negatively. Respondents wrote of teachers being able to use humor and levity to create a relaxed classroom atmosphere, and conversely, when a teacher was overly strict

and uptight, anxiety and negative feelings were stoked. One respondent wrote of how she was relieved when class was cancelled because her teacher was so harsh and punitive, although she still liked studying English in general. Taken together, both the quantitative and the qualitative findings underline the importance of the student/teacher relationship and the remarkable influence teacher emotions have on student emotions, attitudes toward learning, and motivation to learn the FL.

In regard to perceived teacher happiness, in the quantitative data, the happiness factor of satisfaction with personal achievements emerges as a key predictor in student attitudes and motivation. This finding was confirmed in the qualitative data, with three of the four respondents saying that teacher happiness overall was important because it would affect the motivation level and atmosphere of the class. One respondent to the open-ended questions disagreed, saying that teacher happiness was not that important as long as a teacher enjoyed teaching and seemed to like being around their students. It is worthwhile to note that the survey questions that dealt with the perceived teacher happiness domain of satisfaction with personal achievements included questions about whether or not the teacher seems to derive meaning from teaching and enjoy their students. Given this, the qualitative data on the importance of teacher happiness appear to align well with the quantitative: even the one respondent who claimed that teacher happiness was not important shows in her own words that essentially, the perceived happiness domain of satisfaction with personal achievements is indeed important.

Chapter 5. Discussion

In the previous chapter, results of the online questionnaire and the open-ended questions were presented and summarized. In this chapter, the results of the questions will be presented, discussed in detail, analyzed and compared against the original hypotheses presented in Chapter 2, the Literature Review. First the quantitative results of the questionnaire will be discussed, then the results of the supplementary qualitative open-ended questions will be discussed, and last, the results of both sections will be integrated and summarized. The results will be discussed within the broader context of the established literature.

The overarching questions this thesis aims to address are how language students view their teachers' TEI and happiness, and how those perceptions affect students' attitudes and motivation to learn the target language. The main argument of this thesis is that the emotional dimension of the student/teacher relationship is elemental to foreign language learning and that students' impressions of teachers, though often unexpressed by students, play an integral role in the process. Students construct an image of who they think their teacher is, based on impressions, teacher classroom behavior, and personal opinions. Since this research deals with perceptions of teachers by students, and not teachers' own self-perceptions, the goal is to explore precisely how students construct such an image and how it affects their own emotional experience of language learning.

5.1. Perceived teacher TEI

The first research question aimed to explore how students' perceptions of their teachers' TEI affected their own attitudes and motivation. The researcher hypothesized that all TEI factors would correlate with the factors of student attitudes and motivation, and the TEI factor of **sociability** was expected to be the strongest predictor of all factors of student attitudes and motivation. This was hypothesized because past research has shown the importance of teacher friendliness, and anecdotally, it makes good sense that teachers who are friendly and outgoing will have a beneficial effect on students, putting them at ease and motivating them through their own positive, prosocial behavior.

The results show that all TEI factors were correlated with **attitude towards the teacher**, with the TEI factor of **sociability** showing the strongest correlation. The implication of this result is that how friendly and sociable teachers are perceived to be is linked to how students feel about them and how positively students regard them. The factors of **sociability** and **self-control** were the strongest predictors of **attitude towards the teacher**. The factor of **sociability** reflects how effectively the teacher deals with other people, and how well they can negotiate with others. It is not surprising therefore, that students would have more positive attitudes about a teacher whom they perceive to have those traits. The factor of **self-control** reflects how effectively the teacher can regulate their own emotions, how often they change their own mind, how relaxed they are, and how effectively they deal with stress. Again, it is not surprising that students would

prefer a teacher who exhibits such traits, particularly in the emotionally charged atmosphere of the FL classroom.

The other factors of TEI did not explain unique variance in the regression analyses. This result suggests that students prefer teachers who are friendly, outgoing and able to control themselves, and also that perhaps adult students might be aware, at least on some level, of the emotion labor (Benesch, 2012, 2018) that teachers must perform, and even appreciate its value. To take this idea one step further, since the FL classroom is by nature an emotional atmosphere, students value a teacher who can maintain equanimity in the classroom and effectively manage their own emotional reactions while simultaneously managing the emotional thermostat of the classroom (King, Dewaele & Gkonou, 2020).

All TEI factors were also correlated with **attitude towards English**, with **sociability** again showing the strongest correlation. The correlations were weaker than they were with attitude towards the teacher. The TEI factor of **sociability** also significantly predicted **attitude towards English**, suggesting that students who deem their teachers more sociable and friendly will have a better attitude towards the English language and more motivation to study it, further underscoring the importance of teacher friendliness. The other TEI factors were not significant predictors in the regression analysis. One caveat with this result however, is that the participants in this study were of intermediate to high level English proficiency, and past research has indicated that higher proficiency level of a target language is linked to a higher degree of FLE (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Botes et al., 2020). In other words, the respondents of the survey may have already been predisposed

to have a good attitude towards English, regardless of how they perceived their teachers' **sociability**, though it is impossible to tell based solely on the data collected.

All TEI factors were significantly correlated with **positive feelings**, with the factor of **sociability** correlating most strongly. The TEI factor of **sociability** also significantly predicted **positive feelings**. The other factors of TEI did not explain unique variance. This finding is consistent with a study by Dewaele et al. (2018), which found that teacher characteristics predicted 20% of the variance in FLE, with teacher friendliness being the strongest positive predictor. This result is also resonant with Dewaele et al.'s (2019) finding that teacher friendliness was one of the strongest predictors of FLE. In addition to friendliness, the factor of **sociability** accounts for the quality of interpersonal relationships, so it is not surprising that students who perceive their teachers to deal more effectively with others will also report higher levels of their own positive feelings in the classroom.

With regard to **anxiety**, the TEI factor of **wellbeing** was not significantly correlated, and unlike the other domains of attitude and motivation, the TEI factor of **emotionality** was most strongly correlated with **anxiety**. In other words, aside from **emotionality**, a teacher's perceived TEI is not linked to a student's level of anxiety. The questions on **emotionality** ask how well the teacher can express themselves in words, how easily they show affection to others, how well they are able to see things from others' perspectives, and how well they can recognize and express their own emotions. The TEI factor of **emotionality** was the only significant predictor of **anxiety**, with a small to medium effect size. The other TEI

factors failed to explain unique variance. Although the effect size was small, it is possible to speculate that teachers who have better perceptions of their students' emotions might be more equipped to respond to them and effectively manage them; for example, in sensing anxiety, a teacher with higher **emotionality** might be more adept at tamping down ambient stressors in the classroom. Additionally, since **emotionality** encompasses the general treatment of others and the expression of affection to others, it could be understood that students who sense that their teacher treats others well will feel somewhat less anxiety. These results accord with past research which has demonstrated that higher teacher TEI has a positive relationship to student **positive feelings** and a negative relationship to **anxiety** (den Brok et al., 2005; Horwitz et al., 1986; Krashen, 1982; MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012; Noels et al., 1999; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Interestingly, **anxiety** was predicted by a different factor than **positive emotions** tested in the questionnaire, which accords with past research showing that FLE and FLCA are predicted by different variables (Dewaele & Dewaele, 2017, 2020; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014, 2016, 2019; Dewaele et al., 2018).

The repeated emergence of **sociability** as a significant predictor in the factors of student attitudes and motivation also aligns with extant research showing that across age groups and subject matter, students feel more positively about friendlier, more sociable teachers (Curci et al., 2014; Dewaele et al., 2018; Gkonou & Mercer, 2018; Hughes, 2011; Pomeroy, 1999). Past research indicates -and common sense dictates- that students would prefer a teacher who puts them at ease with friendliness and humor. This is especially true of the FL classroom,

which is often an emotional and communicative environment, and where the risk of losing face may be particularly high. The domain of **sociability** also encompasses interpersonal relationships, so the importance of the TEI factor of **sociability** in predicting student attitudes and motivation is not surprising considering the established importance of the interpersonal element in the student/teacher relationship to both students (Pomeroy, 1999) and teachers (Gkonou & Mercer, 2017). When one zooms out and consider these findings in the general sense of human relationships, it is no surprise that individuals would feel more positively towards others who are more friendly, emotionally attuned, and inclusive. The repeated emergence of **sociability** as a predictor of various aspects of student attitudes and motivation is essentially an affirmation of the importance of the emotional aspect of the student/teacher relationship, and offers proof that despite the social distance and the power differential, the relationship is indeed still a human relationship like any other, governed by similar social rules as other important life relationships.

As previously stated, **anxiety** was negatively predicted by a different factor of TEI, **emotionality**, which supports previous findings that foreign language enjoyment (FLE) and foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA), although negatively correlated, are essentially separate dimensions that are predicted by different variables (Dewaele MacIntyre, 2014, 2016). **Anxiety** in particular seems to be a more learner-internal variable, less affected by teacher behavior (Dewaele et al., 2018), and this finding supports this notion. In a study by Dewaele and Dewaele (2020), the findings showed that FLE is more teacher-dependent than

FLCA, and that FLCA tends to be more stable across teachers, suggesting it is more influenced by factors other than teachers. Nevertheless, teacher **emotionality** did indeed predict a medium amount of variance in student **anxiety**, which suggests that teachers who are perceived to be more efficient “readers” of student emotions might have at least some power to decrease student anxiety.

The items on the **student attitude and motivation** section of the questionnaire which dealt with **anxiety** asked students about such things as how nervous they are when they need to speak up in the FL in class, and how much they try to avoid answering questions. Given the predictive power of the TEI factor of **emotionality** as shown in the findings, perhaps teachers who are better able to sense a student’s nervousness and apprehension could call on less anxious students, or employ such strategies as having students work in small groups as opposed to being asked to use the FL in front of the whole class, or adjusting the difficulty level for an anxious student. Based solely on the data collected in the questionnaire, it is impossible to know how teacher **emotionality** could be easing student **anxiety**, though the findings indicate at least some influence.

5.2 Perceived teacher happiness

The researcher hypothesized that perceived teacher happiness would be linked to student attitudes and motivation, with the happiness factor of **enjoyment/fun in life** being the strongest predictor of student **positive feelings** and **attitudes towards the teacher**. No factor of teacher happiness was expected to predict student **anxiety**.

It was much more difficult to speculate on the results of perceived teacher happiness due to such a limited body of existing literature on the topic. The hypothesis was based in part on past research which has shown the importance of teacher enthusiasm in motivating students (Dörnyei, 2001, Gabrys-Barker, 2014). The findings of the correlation analyses show that all three factors of perceived teacher happiness are significantly correlated with **attitude towards the teacher**, with the factor of **satisfaction with personal achievements** showing the strongest correlation. All factors of happiness were also correlated with **attitude towards English**, with the factors of **satisfaction with personal achievements** and **vigor/good health** both correlated equally strongly. Students' **positive feelings** were most strongly correlated with the happiness factor of **satisfaction with personal achievements**. And finally, the only factor of perceived teacher happiness that was significantly correlated with **anxiety** was **vigor/good health**.

The happiness variable of **satisfaction with personal achievements** was the only predictor of student **positive feelings**, explaining a small effect size. Based on this finding, it can be surmised that teachers who seem to not only enjoy, but derive some personal value from the endeavor of teaching, as well as other aspects of their lives, are transmitting this positivity to their students in the classroom. This finding seems to confirm the theory of emotional contagion in the classroom (Dimberg et al., 2000; Frenzel & Stephens, 2013; Hagenauer et al., 2015; Prior, 2016; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003), more specifically the emotional contagion of happiness (Seligman, 2002), and the bidirectional nature of the student/teacher relationship.

The factor of **satisfaction with personal achievements** was a strong predictor of **attitude towards the teacher**. Among the variables of perceived teacher happiness, this was the most notable effect. The questionnaire section on **satisfaction with personal achievements** included questions about how satisfied teachers were professionally and how much they enjoyed teaching, and also included questions about how satisfied teachers were with their other, non-professional personal achievements. The result implies that students who perceive their teachers to enjoy teaching and to be generally more satisfied with their lives will have more positive attitudes towards them and hold higher opinions of them. This result seems to hint at something deeper and more profound about student happiness than simply fun, enthusiasm, and a humoristic, carefree attitude on the part of teachers. It was expected that students' attitudes towards teachers would be most strongly predicted by the teacher's sense of enjoyment and fun in life, especially considering that past research has shown that teachers are often the key factor in FLE. Furthermore, as past research has shown that teacher humor and unpredictability strongly affect student enjoyment (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014), it was expected that a teacher who is perceived to be a fun person would most strongly affect how students thought of them.

The finding of the predictive power of perceived **satisfaction with personal achievements** on **attitude towards the teacher** implies that this factor of happiness subsumes the other two: teachers who seem to be truly satisfied with themselves in general and their decision to become teachers are naturally displaying characteristics of the other two happiness factors. In other words,

students might be presuming that teachers who seem to be vigorous and in good health, and enjoy life are satisfied with their own life achievements. The important caveat again is that this research deals with student perception of teacher happiness and not teachers' own self-reported happiness scores. As such, it is impossible to know if teachers truly felt a sense of satisfaction with their own personal achievements and enjoyed teaching or if they were instead making an effort to pretend for their own sake ("fake it till you make it") and the sake of their students. The only conclusion that can be drawn reasonably from this finding is that students seem to prefer teachers who at least *project* an air of satisfaction with their own life achievements.

The perceived teacher happiness factor of **vigor/good health** positively predicted a **attitude towards English**, with a small effect size. The indication of this result might be that teachers who are perceived to be more vigorous and in better health might be giving their students a slightly better attitude towards English. An important caveat again here is that the participants were all of fairly high English proficiency, and had started learning English at relatively early ages, both factors which have been shown to affect enjoyment and attitudes towards the FL. Therefore, it is possible that they already had fairly positive attitudes towards English and that perceiving their teachers as more vigorous, healthy, alert, and well-rested merely boosted their already positive attitudes towards English.

The happiness factor of **vigor/good health** also negatively predicted **anxiety** (a small effect size), with a small effect size. In other words, when students perceived their teachers to be more well rested, alert and generally

healthy, they reported experiencing slightly less anxiety. It could be surmised that teachers who appear healthier and more vigorous might inspire confidence in students that they are in good hands, which then decreases anxiety, and creates more positive associations with the English. Even in a very student-centered classroom atmosphere, the teacher usually still functions as the conductor, taking charge when needed, and controlling the classroom atmosphere as they deem necessary. This result hints that student anxiety is somewhat eased when the one in charge is perceived to be healthier, more vigorous, and more alert. However, caution is needed in interpreting this result as the effect sizes are small and there is virtually no research precedent.

In general, the hypothesis that perceived teacher happiness would be linked to student attitudes and motivation was confirmed, and the result also confirms past research showing a connection between positive perception of teachers, and student happiness (Dewaele, 2017; Dewaele & Mercer, 2018; Dimberg et al., 2000; Hagenauer et al., 2015; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003) as well as a preference by students for happier teachers (Mercer et al., 2016)

The hypothesis that the factor of **enjoyment/fun in life** would emerge as a strong predictor was disproven, and in fact it did not reach the level of significance in any of the performed analyses. The hypothesis that no variable of happiness would predict **anxiety** was based on a study by Dewaele et al. (2018) which found that how students generally felt about their teacher was not a significant predictor of student anxiety. The current study disproves this hypothesis, though the

effect sizes are small and further study is needed before any firm conclusions can be drawn.

5.3. Classroom behavior

The researcher hypothesized that teachers perceived as having higher TEI levels would display more positive and engaging behaviors in the classroom. Likewise for teacher happiness, but the effect would prove to be stronger for teacher TEI.

In the correlation analyses, all four factors of **perceived teacher TEI** were significantly correlated with **classroom behavior**, with the factor of **sociability** showing the strongest correlation. Results of the regression analysis show that the teacher TEI factors of **sociability** and **wellbeing** were both significant predictors of positive **classroom behavior**. This accords with Dewaele and Mercer's (2018) finding that higher levels of TEI in teachers was reflected in their superior enjoyment of students and levels of enthusiasm in the classroom. Teacher **self-control** and teacher **emotionality** did not explain unique variance. This result underscores the importance of teacher TEI, especially in regard to **sociability**, which was repeatedly shown to be influential in student attitudes and motivation. Friendlier, more outgoing and more emotionally aware teachers are displaying more positive behavior in the classroom, such as creativity, letting students work independently, and being gentle and forgiving in correcting student errors. Dewaele (2020) also found that teachers with higher TEI were more intrinsically motivated to be good teachers, which aligns with the results of the current study.

All three factors of **perceived teacher happiness** were significant predictors of teacher **classroom behavior**. This result accords with past research which has shown that teacher emotions relate to their classroom behavior (Dewaele & Mercer, 2018) and underscores Csikszentmihalyi's (1990) notion that happiness and creativity are intertwined. Furthermore, this seems to confirm the connection between positive teacher emotion and creativity in the classroom (Dewaele, Gkonou & Mercer, 2018; Pekrun et al, 2002; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003), as well as positive teacher emotion and a greater tendency towards a more student-centered approach (Postareff & Lindblom-Ylänne, 2011; Trigwell, 2012).

However, it is worth reminding that this research deals with *perceptions* of teacher happiness, and not actual happiness as self-reported by teachers themselves, meaning that based on these results alone, it is impossible to know whether students' impressions of teacher happiness were based on genuine feelings or emotion labor and surface acting (Benesch, 2018; King, 2016; Loh & Liew, 2016). On the flip side, past research has shown that students notice and take to heart the spontaneous emotional responses of teachers, despite teacher's intentions (Acheson & Nelson, 2020; Benesch, 2012, 2018; Dimberg et al., 2000; Sime, 2006) and "the fact that teachers may often be unaware of the emotional effects that their nonverbal actions may have on individuals does not mean that learners are oblivious to them" (Sime, 2006: 222). The only conclusion that can be drawn from the current research is that teachers who seem happier in the classroom display more positive behavior in the classroom in the eyes of their students.

Overall, the results prove the hypothesized influence of perceived TEI and perceived happiness on teacher **classroom behavior**, however, perceived teacher happiness proved to be more influential than expected. This could be explained by the connection between happiness, creativity, enthusiasm, and humor.

5.4. Learner-internal variables

With regard to learner gender, the researcher hypothesized that females would report experiencing higher levels of **positive feelings** and **anxiety**, because research has shown that females experience slightly more enjoyment and anxiety in the FL classroom (Dewaele, MacIntyre, Boudreau & Dewaele, 2016). It was also hypothesized that females would report higher scores for their teachers' **TEI** and **happiness**.

With regard to number of languages known, the researcher hypothesized that respondents who knew more languages would report higher scores for their teachers' **TEI** and **happiness** and report lower levels of **anxiety**.

For gender, the hypothesis was disproven: no significant differences emerged between genders for any factors of student attitudes and motivation. Likewise, the t-test showed no significant differences for gender with regard to **perceived teacher TEI** and **perceived teacher happiness**, hinting at an intersubjectivity in the foreign language learning experience.

With regard to number of languages known, the only significant difference that emerged was that participants who reported knowing 3 additional languages also reported significantly lower levels of **anxiety**. This result is consistent with existing research on the effects of multilingualism on foreign language anxiety

(Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Dewaele, Petrides & Furnham, 2008; Thompson & Lee, 2013). There were no significant links between the **number of languages known** and **perceived teacher TEI**, or **perceived teacher happiness**, disproving the hypothesis that the more languages a respondent knew, the higher they would report their levels of **perceived teacher happiness**. To date, the body of literature on perceived teacher happiness and foreign language learning is practically nonexistent, so it is difficult to draw any conclusions from this result.

5.5. The importance of teacher TEI and teacher happiness to students

The researcher hypothesized that students would report that **TEI** and **happiness** are equally important in FL teachers. Some respondents reported in words how they felt about their teachers generally, and about their perceptions of their teachers' TEI and happiness. They were also asked if they felt TEI and happiness were important for FL teachers. In response to how they felt about their teachers, three of four respondents included in the analysis had highly favorable opinions of their teachers, and the fourth had a less favorable impression of their teacher, yet reported loving English and being highly motivated to study despite disliking the teacher. These results were not surprising considering the unavoidable self-selection bias. Since the open-ended questions were an optional follow-up to the quantitative section, it stands to reason that those who would willingly participate would be more positive students with higher opinions of their teachers and of English. Furthermore, considering the self-selection bias among the entire respondent pool of the entire study, those who volunteered to answer the follow-up questions were even more self-selected among an already positive group.

One alternate explanation is that the near unanimous positive responses might be attributed to the built-in norms of the student/teacher relationship. For example, when asked point blank to describe one's feelings about a current teacher, students might consciously or unconsciously remember the power their teacher has over their grades, which might influence their responses. Perhaps the assurance of anonymity by an unknown researcher is simply not enough to elicit a completely honest response from students to the question of what they really think of their teacher.

Across all four responses, teacher TEI was unanimously considered important, with students describing how their teachers were able to read the student's own individual emotions as well as the general emotional atmosphere of the classroom. Respondents described how the teacher would ask a question and look around at the students' faces to try and gauge whether or not they truly understood it, then calibrate the lesson accordingly. One student reported that her teacher is like a psychologist, with an exceptional, almost uncannily good sense of what the students are thinking and feeling. Students also described the importance of teacher empathy, a characteristic of the TEI domain of **emotionality**, as well as general friendliness and the establishment of interpersonal relationships between students and teachers, reflections of **sociability** and **emotionality**.

The results of the quantitative data pointed towards a recurrent theme among respondents of the importance of the student/teacher relationship, and more specifically, the teacher taking a personal interest in the student's life. This finding aligns with past research showing that students have the most favorable

attitudes towards teachers who take a personal interest in them (in an appropriate manner), and that students think most highly of teachers who transcend the dictates of the student/teacher relationship by availing themselves as friends and confidants to their students. One respondent said that she was worried about the class, until she went out for coffee with her teacher, which set her mind at ease and greatly motivated her to continue trying her best in the class.

As for happiness, three of four respondents felt emphatically that teacher happiness was important because teachers' moods could "infect" the class. The findings indicate that students are aware of the emotional contagion effect that takes place in the classroom (Dewaele, 2020; Dimberg et al., 2000; Sutton & Wheatley, 2003; Hagenauer, Hascher & Volet, 2015). Responses also indicated that a teacher's own happiness will pervade their teaching practice and make them more engaging and entertaining. Indirectly, this result seems to align with past research on the teacher's effect on FLE (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014).

Regarding the question of how important teacher happiness was, only one lone dissenter who felt that happiness was not that necessary for FL teachers because happiness is more of an internal, personal state that can be kept separate from teaching. In other words, a teacher doesn't necessarily need to be happy to be a good teacher and have a good relationship with their students. Interestingly, this particularly respondent scored above average on the attitude and motivation section of the questionnaire, and reported the teacher's happiness as above average. This is indeed a curious finding in light of the quantitative results. While

perceived teacher TEI was highly influential on student attitude and motivation, teacher happiness was influential, though not to the same extent.

One notable omission that is worth mentioning is that when asked about the importance of teacher happiness, nowhere did anyone mention that teacher happiness is important because teachers are people and have an inherent right to the pursuit of their own happiness. Granted, the context of the study was FL learning and the questions were oriented towards eliciting responses based on the student/teacher relationship. It could be that if the same students were asked in a different context if they thought teacher happiness was important, they might have said yes for different reasons. Still, considering the traditional over-emphasis on students in SLA research and educational research in general, and the lack of focus on teachers, students and teachers alike are probably primed to think of teacher wellbeing and happiness only in relation to students. Moreover, due to the highly context-specific and situation-specific nature of the student/teacher relationship, students can't be blamed for not immediately considering their teachers' happiness as important in its own right. It would have been interesting to ask a follow-up question such as: *Do you think teachers deserve to be happy?* Or even more directly: *Do you care if your teacher is happy in their life outside the classroom??*

5.6. Comparing perceived teacher TEI and perceived teacher happiness

The statistical analyses show that the effect of perceived teacher TEI on student attitudes and motivation was strong. The teacher TEI factors of **sociability** and **self-control** were significant predictors of the positive aspects of student

attitude and motivation, while the factor of **emotionality** negatively predicted **anxiety**. The effect of perceived teacher TEI on how students reported teacher classroom behavior was also strong. The teacher TEI factors of **sociability** and **wellbeing** were significant predictors of teacher **classroom behavior**, while the factors of **emotionality** and **self-control** failed to reach significance. These findings indicate that when students perceive their teachers to be more emotionally intelligent, they report more positive behavior from them in the classroom, such as more student-centered activities, more creativity, less harshness in providing corrective feedback, and a greater appreciation of interactions with their students.

The effects of perceived teacher happiness on student attitude and motivation are also evident. In the quantitative results, the happiness factor of **satisfaction with personal achievements** was a predictor of **attitude towards the teacher** and **positive feelings**. The happiness factor of **vigor/good health** was a significant predictor of **attitude towards English**, and a significant negative predictor of **anxiety**. The happiness factor of **enjoyment/fun in life** failed to predict any aspect of student attitude and motivation, contrary to the hypothesis.

In the qualitative data, teacher TEI was shown to be important, though the effect for teacher happiness was not as strong. There are some possible explanations for this difference. Teacher TEI might be more manifest in concrete, observable actions and thus might register more readily than impressions of teacher happiness. Furthermore, TEI involves the management of emotions, both one's own and those of others (Bar-On, 2006; Goleman, 1995), which might make it more salient in classroom behavior than a more abstract sense of happiness.

This finding might also be due at least in part to the construct of happiness that was used: the OHI was not originally intended to be used as an observer reported test, while the TEIQue 360 was specifically designed for that purpose. Adapting the OHI as an observer-reported test might be in part responsible for the results of perceived teacher happiness. Furthermore, questions in the TEI section asked about relationships in an explicit manner, for example, if teachers seemed to understand and be able to control others' emotions. The questions in the happiness section were more abstract and vague, such as whether or not teachers seem to have good personal relationships and enjoy life.

It could be that happiness and its intricacies do not yield to simple classification. The question of happiness raises critical questions about both its definition and its measurement. The findings indicated that **satisfaction with personal achievements**, a happiness factor of the OHI, was a predictor of both attitude towards the teacher and positive feelings. In light of this, it is worthwhile to consider: what is the relationship of happiness to satisfaction? Are they one and the same? Is satisfaction indeed a facet of happiness, as the OHI conceptualizes it, or are the two distinct concepts? The issue of whether or not happiness encompasses satisfaction harks back to how happiness is defined and the long-standing debates around those definitions. As outlined in the literature review (Chapter 2), Kahneman and Deaton (2010) believe that happiness is distinct from satisfaction. Their contention is that happiness has more to do with fleeting positive feelings, while satisfaction involves a longer, more drawn-out sense of accomplishment or fulfillment derived from having achieved a goal or having

reached a certain potential. Further putting them at odds with the PP movement, Kahneman and Deaton (2010) do not believe that happiness is a choice, and that many of the factors which affect a person's happiness may be out of their control.

Along these lines, the difference between happiness and satisfaction is in part temporal: happiness occurs in real time, in accordance with Csikszentmihalyi's (1997) idea of flow, while satisfaction occurs over the long term. Happiness can result from a pleasurable experience, such as socializing with friends, while satisfaction is more solitary. If one were to ascribe to this line of reasoning, the students in the present study were affected less by their teacher's happiness, but rather more by their teacher's sense of satisfaction. Additionally, since the findings indicate that the happiness factor of **enjoyment/fun in life** had a negative effect on **anxiety**, it could be said that students who perceive their teachers to be happier experienced less anxiety.

On the other side of the happiness versus satisfaction argument, Layard (2020) argues that happiness is indeed satisfaction. He contends that the only way to truly measure a person's happiness is by asking them about their life satisfaction. He argues that in trying to gauge a person's happiness, one should ask them directly about their satisfaction, citing evidence that what people say about their own happiness is linked to "objective measurements taken from the brain" (Layard, 2010: 91) and that how people report their own satisfaction has been shown to be predictive of their longevity.

Despite how happiness and satisfaction are conceptualized, the question of perception of another's happiness remains at the heart of the current study's

findings, and still lingers in abstraction. What the teachers comes to manifest in the eyes of the student might just be a screen of projection and expectation. The study does not account for the specifics of how happiness is being conveyed by the teacher, and if the student's perception of the teacher's happiness is based on the teacher's genuine emotion or if the teacher's positive happiness-signaling behavior is used to veneer their true (perhaps negative) emotions. The nature of this study is such that students are asked to speculate about their teacher's emotional inner lives, which are often kept obscured. In assessing their teacher's happiness, clearly assumptions are at play. More information is needed to truly understand which aspects of teacher classroom behavior is intimating happiness in the eyes of the students.

In the qualitative data, the respondent who bucked the trend by saying that happiness is not that important for teachers might have had in mind a more simple, one-note sense of happiness, as might be conveyed by teacher smiles, cheer, and positivity. The respondent might have also understood that teachers often exercise careful restraint with their own emotions in the classroom, playing up the positive and playing down the negative. Respondents were not asked about their own personal understanding of the term "happiness," so it is impossible to know for sure why three respondents found teacher happiness important while one did not.

5.7. Summary

5.7.1 Perceived teacher TEI

In looking at how students perceive teacher TEI, the domain of **sociability** proved to be especially influential. In the past, extensive research has been

conducted on the student/teacher relationship in primary and secondary school settings though little research exists on the relationship in the setting of an adult FL classroom. Interestingly, the present study affirms what has been shown in the past: students prefer friendly teachers with high TEI. While students may not be explicitly aware of TEI and its four key factors (wellbeing, emotionality, sociability, self-control), what is evident is that they are aware of how the teacher is expressing their own emotions, responding to the emotions of individuals and the class at large.

How attuned a teacher is to the emotional atmosphere of the classroom is influential over the students attitudes and motivation, meaning that teacher TEI has the power to affect students in significant ways (Dewaele & Mercer, 2018). Whether or not teachers can control or boost their own TEI in the classroom is open to debate, however based on the results presented in this chapter indicating the strong influence of teacher TEI, it would behoove them to at least become more aware of their own emotional displays and reactions in the FL classroom. Additionally, teacher training programs might consider the importance of adding an emotion-based component to the curriculum, considering the fact that emotional aspects of teaching have traditionally been largely ignored in pre-service teacher training programs.

An implicit theme that emerged from the analyses of the results is the importance of teacher wellness. This thesis deals with student perceptions of teacher emotional states, and the results underscore how important and influential those perceptions can be in the FL learning process. The qualitative results

showed how crucial the student/teacher relationship is to the FL learning process, and how much students notice and value their teachers' emotional intelligence. If one were to read between the lines, it seems clear that in order for students to be well and have their emotional needs met in the classroom, teachers must also be emotionally healthy and well (Gkonou, Dewaele & King, 2020; Oxford, 2020).

5.7.2. Perceived teacher happiness

Teacher happiness has been, and remains, a slippery subject to study and quantify. The act of teaching usually requires a certain degree of pretending, and such emotion labor may dilute teachers' true emotions or occlude them altogether (Benesch, 2018). Perceptions of teacher happiness (whether real or feigned), as measured in the present study, were also shown to be influential to students' attitudes and motivation just as teacher TEI. In considering teacher happiness the question of teacher wellness arises again just as it did with teacher TEI. While there is an interface between TEI and happiness, even uttering the mere phrase "teacher happiness" feels novel, if not downright awkward. Students have traditionally been the focus of SLA research, and for good reason. However, as the results of the present study indicate, teacher happiness does indeed exert an effect on students, and that is one important reason to recognize it and cultivate it. Student and teacher happiness are often intertwined, and past research on FLE clearly indicates the predictive effect of teacher behavior on student enjoyment. Therefore, promoting teacher happiness is a worthwhile pursuit for the sake of both teachers and students alike.

5.7.3. Classroom behavior

The link between perceived teacher TEI and teacher classroom behavior was clear and strong. That teacher TEI and classroom behavior are connected was not a surprise. However, as the current study explores those things from the student's vantage point, what is interesting about this finding is what students are extrapolating about their FL teachers beyond the confines of the classroom. The two TEI predictors of classroom behavior were sociability and wellbeing. On one hand, it makes sense that when students perceive teachers to be more sociable they also report more positive behavior from them in the classroom. The factor of wellbeing however, asks question about the teacher's mental health in their personal life. Some questions included in the factor of wellbeing were: *They generally don't appear to find life enjoyable; On the whole they appear pleased with their life; and They believe they're full of personal strengths.* As those questions deal with the more personal, private aspects of TEI, in answering those questions, students were asked to take a leap of imagination about their teacher. The result of the quantitative analysis shows that students who perceived their teachers to enjoy their own private lives and feel confident in their own personal skills were noticing those traits shine through in their teachers' positive behavior in the classroom.

All three happiness factors predicted how students rated their teachers' classroom behavior. Similar to the results of TEI and classroom behavior, students who imagine that their teachers are happy in a full, well-rounded way that extends beyond the classroom reported more positive teaching practices from them.

5.7.4. Learner-internal variables

5.7.4.1. Gender

The quantitative section aimed to answer the question of whether or not males and females report significant differences in their levels of attitudes and motivation, and their perceptions of teacher TEI and happiness. The results from the t-test indicate that there is no significant difference between genders, meaning that males and females reported similar levels of positive feelings, anxiety, attitudes towards the teacher, and attitudes towards English.

5.7.4.2. Number of languages known

Results of the ANOVA showed that students who reported knowing three additional languages had significantly lower levels of anxiety. This accords with past research which has shown that multilinguals tend to experience less foreign language anxiety than bilinguals. All of the participants in the present study were considered to be bilingual, as intermediate proficiency level of English or above was a prerequisite for participation. Anxiety was the only factor affected by the learner-internal variable of number of languages known.

5.7.5. Open-ended questions

In analyzing the qualitative data collected, certain key themes emerged including the importance of the student/teacher relationship, the importance of teachers being able to read individual emotions and the emotional state of the class as a whole. Interestingly, one respondent said that her teacher put her at ease by taking on the role of a friend outside of the classroom, meeting her for coffee and showing interest in her personal life. When asked explicitly about the

importance of teacher TEI, all four respondents said that it was important. However, when asked the same question about teacher happiness, responses were not unanimous. One respondent said that it was not that important for teachers to be happy because happiness is a private state and it has no bearing on how well teachers perform their professional duties. This result seemed to jive with the results of the quantitative section showing that teacher happiness is important but not as much as teacher TEI.

Chapter 6. Conclusion

Traditional SLA research has focused heavily on the learner, resulting in a surfeit of literature on students and very little on teachers, although the trend is rapidly changing (cf. Gkonou, Dewaele & King, 2020). The current study is uniquely positioned to cover both aspects as an exploration of language teacher psychology from the student point of view. This project operates within a PP framework, whereby positive emotions are considered integral to the FL learning process, alongside more commonly researched negative emotions such as anxiety (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012).

The overall purpose of the current research was to explore how students perceive the emotions of their FL teachers and how those perceptions then affect the students' own attitudes and motivation to learn the FL. It is not news that students form all sorts of impressions of their teachers both in the professional and personal realms of their lives, and both within the context of the classroom and extending beyond into the "real world." What is innovative about the current research however is that it attempts to ask students in a straightforward manner what they think of their teachers in terms of their emotional states both inside and outside the classroom. Due to the social and emotional distance dictated by the student/teacher relationship and the inherent power differential, students are often reluctant to discuss their opinions of their teachers "on the record," although amongst themselves, students can often be found discussing, opining, comparing and contrasting impressions, and speculating about who their teacher might be beyond the confines of the classroom. The current study was an attempt to quantify

and analyze such opinions in a formal research project, with the hope that doing so might shed much needed light on emotions in SLA, teacher psychology, and the complex dynamics of the student/teacher relationship.

6.1. Overview of findings

6.1.1. Teacher TEI

This study underscores the importance of teacher TEI, which can be considered as crucial to the practice of teaching as expertise and knowledge of the subject matter. Students have better attitudes, experience less anxiety, and feel more motivated when there is an emotionally intelligent teacher at the helm (Dewaele, 2020; Dewaele, Gkonou, & Mercer, 2018; Dewaele & Mercer, 2018). This study did not explore student outcomes, though it would stand to reason that increased motivation and more positive attitudes would lead to better learning outcomes, as past research has indicated (Clark et al., 1979; Curci et al., 2014; Spilt et al., 2011). The results of this study suggest that the emotions of students and teachers in the classroom are often in lockstep, most likely due to the process of emotional contagion, though who is “infecting” whom is not always clear.

6.1.2. Teacher happiness

The general notion of happiness is often considered a slippery abstraction; even attempting to define the word raises nettlesome questions which trickle down to the study of happiness within the field of applied linguistics. Consequently, there is little existing research on happiness and language learning psychology, and even less on perceptions of FL teacher happiness by students. Past related research has looked at how teacher enthusiasm tends to motivate students

(Dörnyei, 2001; Furst, 1971; Gabrys-Barker, 2014), but the findings of this project imply that **perceived** teacher happiness is indeed also a determinant factor in the FL learning process. Nonetheless due to the lack of supporting evidence on the topic, the role of happiness perception of teachers by students in FL learning remains more or less a recondite subject.

6.1.3. Teacher classroom behavior

The questionnaire sought to answer the question of how perceptions of teacher TEI and happiness affected how students reported teacher classroom behavior, with questions reflecting such aspects as the teacher's willingness to let students work independently, teacher creativity, harshness in giving corrective feedback, and how much the teacher seemed to enjoy the students. The findings showed that all four factors of perceived teacher TEI correlated with classroom behavior, and that the factors of sociability and wellbeing were significant predictors of teacher classroom behavior.

Similarly, all three factors of perceived teacher happiness were significantly correlated with classroom behavior. Furthermore, all three domains of happiness were significant predictors of classroom behavior, meaning that when students perceived their teachers to be happier, they reported more positive, student-centered, and creative classroom behavior from them

6.1.4. Learner-internal variables

6.1.4.1. Gender

In light of past research on gender differences in the emotional experiences of FL learning, gender was analyzed as a learner-internal variable to look at

potential differences across the dependent variables. The findings showed that there were no significant gender differences in any of the dependent variables: attitude towards teacher, attitude towards English, positive feelings, anxiety, perceived teacher TEI, and perceived teacher happiness.

6.1.4.2. Number of languages known

Past research has shown that the more languages a learner knows, the less foreign language anxiety they tend to experience. In the present study, this was indeed the case. Number of languages known was tested as a learner-internal variable to see if there was an effect on anxiety. Indeed, learners who reported knowing two or more additional languages also scored lower on anxiety, corroborating past research findings.

6.1.5. Open-ended questions

The qualitative section of the study consisted of ten optional open-ended questions that respondents answered via email. The questions were formulated based on the findings of the questionnaire. Respondents were asked about their impressions of their English teacher, various aspects of their teacher's TEI, their teacher's happiness, and how important they thought teacher TEI and happiness were for language teachers. Five respondents answered, though only four respondents were deemed interesting and relevant enough to include in the analysis.

The answers to the open-ended questions elucidated the quantitative findings on the effects of teacher TEI on student attitude and motivation. Respondents all felt that FL teachers should be friendly and cultivate a clear

personal interest in their students' lives (in an appropriate, and consensual manner). Furthermore, they felt that their teachers were able to read the emotional atmosphere of the classroom and of individual students, which helped them adjust their teaching practices accordingly.

The quantitative results regarding the question of teacher happiness showed that students generally find happier teachers more pleasant and are aware of the emotional contagion effect of happiness. However, one respondent reported that she did not think teacher happiness was necessary because teachers could be unhappy and still do their jobs well.

6.2. Pedagogical implications

In turning the spotlight back on teacher psychology, the question remains: how might teachers boost their own TEI and happiness in the classroom? Teachers already often perform a role in the classroom (Beadle, 2009; King, 2016; Lamb, 2017) with emotion labor (Benesch, 2018, 2020) reflected in strategies of surface acting and deep acting (Hochschild, 1983). In the long run however, a more genuine, unfeigned strategy might be more effective in retaining teachers in the profession and promoting their wellbeing. Additionally, the current study has shown that students are able to detect their teachers' professional satisfaction which in turn affects their own motivation to learn.

One possible strategy for language teachers would be a recalibration of expectation, or as Falout and Murphey (2018) have dubbed it, "job crafting." They argue that teachers can and should actively seek to create a sense of meaning in their profession, whether or not they feel that teaching is their true calling.

Gregersen, MacIntyre and MacMillan (2020) offer a similar suggestion in the form of “finding silver linings.” With these suggestions, however, comes an important caveat: the burden of creating a positive atmosphere in the classroom must not fall squarely on teachers. Educational institutions must support teachers, recognize, and validate their concerns (Benesch, 2018; De Costa, Li & Rawal, 2019; Loh & Liew, 2016). Teachers thus need support, a decent salary and good working conditions. Students must also be reminded of their role and responsibility in promoting positivity in the classroom by showing mutual respect, which is especially true in the context of adult education.

6.3. Limitations

This thesis is first and foremost a study of student emotion perception. As a result, no information is known about teachers beyond that which is supplied by the students. Throughout the project, teachers remain something of a shadowy, anonymous question mark: we do not know even the most basic demographic information about them, such as age, gender, and L1. While this seeming omission was in fact by design, it is ironically also one of the study’s main limitations. Results of this study show that student perceptions of teacher TEI and happiness were not significantly different among various groups of students, though having more information about the teachers might have been helpful and may have added some interesting texture to the data.

As adapted from the AMTB (Gardner, 1985), questions in the survey inquired about respondents’ feelings both continuous and episodic, however a cross-sectional study is limited by nature, essentially offering a snapshot of a

moment in time (Paltridge & Phaktiti, 2015). Impressions of teachers are probably not static. Participants may have taken the survey at various stages in their English courses, and while they are being asked what they think about their teachers, it was unknown how long they had known their teacher at the point of taking the survey. Some impressions of teachers may have been influenced by either positive or negative interactions in the immediate past, or other temporal variables that were not accounted for. Some students for example might have [fairly or unfairly] conceptualized their teachers more negatively after having just received a low score on a test or assignment. This study does not take into consideration such whims or precipitates that may have colored a student's opinion of their teacher at the time of taking the survey. These sorts of background experiences and interactions between students and teachers would be helpful in a longitudinal study but would have been impossible to tabulate and account for in the current study.

The questionnaire was distributed internationally across a wide swath of respondents in various settings, and as a result, participants hail from diverse national and L1 backgrounds with a wide age range. In considering learner-internal variables, L1, nationality and age were not analyzed because the sample would not have been balanced enough to draw any conclusions based on the results. A future project with a more balanced pool of participants might yield interesting data on individual differences in perceptions of language teachers. Additionally, all respondents of the current survey were of intermediate to advanced level English proficiency, which could have affected the results. Future research could aim to

explore student perceptions of teacher emotion using subjects of varied LX proficiency.

An additional limitation of this study that must be mentioned is the brevity of the qualitative component. The original intention was to utilize a more balanced mixed methods approach, with both quantitative and qualitative data complementing each other. However, in gathering data, participants' willingness to follow-up voluntarily at a later date was sorely overestimated. As mentioned in the methodology chapter (Chapter 3), questionnaire respondents were asked at the end of the questionnaire to supply their email addresses if they would be willing to answer follow-up questions. This method was chosen in order to craft the qualitative component based on the results of the statistical analyses (Creswell & Plano Clarke, 2011). Another practical reason for trying to collect qualitative data at a later time was simply that the questionnaire was quite lengthy and there was some concern that respondents would simply give up or not respond to the open-ended questions meaningfully and in good faith.

Close to forty respondents voluntarily left their email addresses to be contacted by the researcher in order to answer the follow-up questions, which seemed like a hopeful number. After the statistics were run, trends were identified, and the follow-up questions were accordingly formulated, volunteers were contacted via email.

Volunteers who did not respond to the initial email call were contacted again, and finally for a third time weeks later, but to no avail. It became clear at that point that this predicament could have been avoided by adding the follow-up

questions to the end of the survey. Although this wouldn't have allowed for more pointed questions based on the quantitative results, it would have allowed for a much greater, richer, and more nuanced understanding of respondents' ways of thinking, and a more comprehensive analysis. It seems clear in retrospect that when people have made the decision to participate in a research project and are already sitting down to fill out a survey, they are already in the mindset to answer questions and would thus be more likely to answer open-ended questions. In that sense, the open-ended questions could have yielded much more data if they were presented as an immediate continuation of the survey. They could have been reasonably formulated based on past research and even the results of the pilot study. The use of semi-structured interviews would have provided even greater and more in-depth understanding of what was going on inside the minds of the respondents.

Ultimately a total of five people responded with fully filled out answers to the follow-up questions. Of those five, only four were deemed interesting enough to be included in the analysis. The excluded responses seemed contrived and generic, as though the respondent was simply telling the researcher what they thought they were expected to say. Despite the limited qualitative data, luckily four of the five respondents who answered the follow-up questions provided thoughtful, honest, and interesting responses. Their written answers served as a nice side-complement to the heftier and more detailed quantitative data. Therefore, while the qualitative component as it stands can only offer so much, it is nonetheless useful in providing a brief yet valuable glimpse into the respondents' thinking.

Another limitation of the current study involves the question of perceived teacher happiness. While the body of research on happiness in general is incredibly vast, when one zooms in on the topic of perceptions of the happiness of others, there is practically nothing. This shortage of past research made it difficult to hypothesize about the effects that perceived teacher happiness would have on student attitudes and motivation. Furthermore, while TEI tests have been adapted to include observer-reported constructs such as the one utilized by the current study, no such observer-reported construct exists for happiness, so an existing construct was adapted for this purpose.

In the current research, the respondents hail from a wide range of ages, L1 backgrounds, and cultures. Because of this somewhat unbalanced mix of individuals, the variable of gender was chosen for its commonality among subjects. While not everyone may have similar cultural backgrounds, everyone does indeed have some gender. Although it is not the central focus of the current research, any testing which considers gender as a variable is not without its caveats and complexities, which the researcher would be remiss not to mention.

Despite an increasing drumbeat around the acknowledgement and acceptance of more nuanced, inclusive conversations about gender outside the field, Applied Linguistics research continues for the most part to treat gender as a strictly binary variable in research terms. It must be stated that doing so may be seen as reductive, forcing assumptions about gender characteristics and gender essentialism, and furthermore, by providing only two options for gender on

questionnaires, researchers may be perhaps inadvertently asking subjects to check off a box on a survey that may or may not correspond to their true identity.

6.4. Future directions

It would be fascinating to compare students' perceptions of their teachers' happiness with teachers' own self-reported ratings. This could also add valuable insight into the topic of teacher emotion labor. Similarly, asking teachers to self-report their own TEI and comparing the scores with students' observer-reported scores could offer valuable insight into teacher self-conceptualization. As with happiness scores, comparing scores of TEI could also shed valuable light on emotion labor.

It would also be interesting to explore which perceptions of teacher emotion are ephemeral and which seem to remain fixed over time. Perhaps a teacher's perceived happiness seems higher in the beginning of the course and markedly lower at the end, or vice versa. Classroom behavior of teachers as reported by students may also change over time, as teachers get a sense of the classroom dynamics and decide which behaviors are more efficient than other for each unique classroom situation. For example, a teacher who generally strives to have students work independently may slowly amend their ideals over time if the class is too boisterous or unruly. In order to explore this topic longitudinally, it would be crucial to gather information about the teacher, such as their self-reported TEI and happiness scores.

In light of the roles that teachers so often report playing in the classroom including via surface acting and other forms of emotion labor involved in the

teaching profession, it could potentially be very interesting and worthwhile to tease out the authentic from the feigned: are teachers truly happy, do they feel truly satisfied with their life achievements, do they really experience joy and elation in the classroom, or is it just an act, performed for the sake of professional decorum and perhaps even serving as a psychological defense mechanism for the teachers themselves? In a similar vein, it would be curious to explore how accurate students perceive their teachers' emotions, and if great disparities do exist, how effectively are teachers able to fool their students.

Emotions are transient by nature and impressions of people within any relational framework are often mutable, subject to change at any moment and for any given reason. In a classroom situation, perceptions of teachers may also be prone to change, both positively and negatively, depending on a wide range of personal and situational variables. Students' own emotional experiences are also subject to change over time. Past research has shown that FLE tends to be more stable over time while FLCA changes more over time (Dewaele & Dewaele, 2017). In light of developing research on emotion and foreign language learning, and directed motivation currents, future research might build on the current study by employing a similar experiment in a longitudinal design. FL students enrolled in a language course could be asked their attitudes and motivation, and their perceptions of their teachers several times throughout the course of the term, and changes could be explored in greater depth. The current study is not designed to take into account these sorts of temporal changes, however a longitudinal study

would be better suited to explore changes in student attitude and motivation and perception of teacher emotion over time.

As many confounding variables as possible would need to be controlled for: students would ideally be of similar proficiency levels in the FL, in the same age range, and perhaps from the same L1. It would also be preferable for teachers and students to have not known each other prior to the start of the course, in order to get the freshest, most visceral first impressions at the start of the study. Several groups of students taking a term-long or year-long course would be tested close to the beginning of the start of the course, which would provide a sort a sort of raw picture of how they perceive their teachers based on gut feelings and vague hunches. Interviews or open-ended questions would be conducted to gather qualitative data. In order to do this well, students would need full assurance that their answers will be kept strictly private and confidential. Teachers would also be asked to self-assess their happiness and TEI. Then students would be given the same questionnaire mid-term. They would also be asked explicitly to describe how, if at all, their impressions of their teachers had changed. Teachers would also self-assess again.

Finally, at the end of the course, the procedure would be repeated one final time: students would assess their teachers' TEI and happiness and would provide qualitative data, being asked again to describe how their impressions of the teacher had changed, if at all. Teachers would self-assess one final time as well, and would be asked in interviews or open-ended questions about how authentically they present themselves in the classroom: how much of a role do they play? How

much of their emotional display is based on authenticity versus surface acting and emotion labor?

Once the data has been gathered, the scores for each term would be tallied, and compared against each other, to see if students' perceptions had changed as the course progressed. Teachers' scores would also be compared by term. Then, students' assessments would be compared against teachers' own self-reported scores of TEI and happiness. Qualitative data would serve to elucidate changes and students' thought processes in assessing teachers.

Qualitative data collected could provide a wealth of information about how students truly see their teachers, and how teachers see themselves. Students could be asked explicitly how much the teacher's emotional state affects their own attitudes and motivation towards learning the target language. Asking students about their attitudes and motivation as well as their perceptions of their teachers several times over the course of a year or semester would help to explain which factors may be affecting their opinions of their teachers, such as test scores, difficulty of assignments, or even observable changes in teacher classroom behavior.

The relationship between gender and emotion in language learning is intricate and complex. Hopefully future research on gender differences will take into greater account emotion labor, gender expectations, sociocultural norms, stereotyping, and nuanced shades of gender identity. While the current researcher is fully aware of, and sensitive to, these complexities and believes emphatically in more robust and inclusive conversations about gender, the current project tests the

variable of gender using a binary model. This choice was made for the sake of grounding the hypothesis in past research, which has mostly employed such a conception of gender. Nevertheless, it is the researcher's hope that Applied Linguistics research will continue to evolve in relation to gender, perhaps moving beyond the t-test to explore emotion and gender from a more progressive and inclusive perspective.

6.5. Final remarks

In light of Benesch's (2018) consideration of the institutional factors that affect emotion labor, I am reminded of my own negative experience in the institution I described in chapter 1 (Introduction). In that case, teachers were saddled with an unreasonable and pointless load of paperwork, and constantly treated with suspicion by the management. For me at the time as a young teacher, those negative institutional factors in effect formed a psychological boulder in my path to job satisfaction that was difficult to surmount. Benesch might have argued that showing my true emotions in lieu of pretending to be happy in the classroom could have been a form of activism and emotional resistance. In a sense, I did enact my own form of emotional resistance. Since the institution showed such little regard for teachers, I made the private decision to interpret the institution's apathy as a form of freedom, effectively granting myself *cart blanche* to do my own thing, taking generous creative liberties in the classroom.

I have always been able to retain some element of happiness as a teacher in every situation, though I have no way of knowing if my students sensed that at times my enthusiasm was a bit ramped up (aided by the ever-present cup of coffee

on my desk), or that my praise for their achievements, however minor, might have been delivered with a bit more brio than the situation called for. Some of them may have indeed noticed my emotion labor. Nevertheless, Benesch (2018) also makes the case that not all emotion labor is necessarily deleterious. Prolonged emotion labor might be untenable, but whatever degree of authenticity teachers choose in representing themselves emotionally in the classroom should be chalked up to their personality, style and preferences, and ultimately left to the individual teacher's discretion. As student and teacher emotion are necessarily linked, it is reasonable to suppose that emotion labor might be performed by students as well. In fact, emotion labor does not apply strictly to teachers, as Benesch (2018) notes that "teachers and students alike are trained to manage their emotions privately so that they can behave in ways that are considered appropriate for the classroom" (p. 2).

The nature of the student/teacher relationship is tightly wound by complex detail, and this thesis is an attempt to unspool part of it. Students hold many opinions about their teachers and generously make assumptions about who their teachers are, where they've come from, and how they move through the "real world" outside the classroom. Traditionally these impressions have most often been relegated to informal discussions amongst students in casual settings. The power differential in the classroom and other social limitations of the student/teacher relationship have largely kept students' opinions of their teachers confined to "safe" conversations with other students or even unuttered within students' own minds. This project was an attempt to transition these impressions from the provenance of casual student conversation to a formal research project,

with the hope of uncovering a deeper, more nuanced understanding of the role of emotion and the student/teacher relationship in FL learning and teaching.

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Appendix: Questionnaire

Student Perception of Teacher Emotional Intelligence and Happiness

This questionnaire is for students of English as a Second or Foreign Language who are currently enrolled in a formal English class. Respondents should be of intermediate to advanced level proficiency.

This study is part of a PhD research project in the Department of Applied Linguistics and Communication, Birkbeck, University of London. Completing this survey should take about 15 minutes.

The purpose is to explore how students of English as a Foreign Language perceive their teachers' emotional intelligence and happiness, and how those perceptions influence their language acquisition in the classroom setting.

Results will be written up for a PhD thesis, may be presented at conferences, and written up in journals. If any individual data is presented, it will be completely anonymous, with no identifying of individuals involved.

There will be an option to participate in a follow-up interview. This is entirely voluntary. You may choose to only complete the questionnaire and not the follow

up interview. Should you choose to participate in a follow-up interview, your name and identity will remain confidential.

This project has received ethical approval from the School of Social Sciences, History and Philosophy, Birkbeck, University of London.

For further information about this study, please contact the researcher, Sharona Moskowitz, via email: smosko02@mail.bbk.ac.uk

Thank you very much for your participation!

Consent

I have been informed about the nature of this study and willingly consent to take part in it. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time up to the point of publication.

Tick the box:

☐

About you

1. Gender:

2. Age:

3. Nationality:

4. Native language:

5. Which other language(s) do you know? (Proficient enough for at least a basic exchange)

7. How would you describe your English language performance compared to the rest of your class?

	1	2	3	4	5	
Far below average	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Far above average

8. How would you describe your level of English?

	1	2	3	4	5	
Beginner	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Advanced

Outside of English class, how much time do you spend:

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Never	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	All the time

9. Watching movies in English?

10. Watching television in English?

11. Reading English books and/or magazines?

12. Listening to music in English?

13. Socializing in English?

14. Do you travel to English speaking countries?

15. In general, how much overall exposure to English would you say you have outside the classroom?

Word List

This test consists of about 60 trials, in each of which you will see a string of letters. Your task is to decide whether this is an existing English word or not.

If you think it is an existing English word, you click on "yes", and if you think it is not an existing English word, you click on "no". If you are sure that the word exists, even though you don't know its exact meaning, you may still respond "yes". But if you are not sure if it is an existing word, you should respond "no".

In this experiment, we use British English rather than American English spelling. For example: "realise" instead of "realize"; "colour" instead of "color", and so on. Please don't let this confuse you.

This experiment is not about detecting such subtle spelling differences anyway. You have as much time as you like for each decision. This part of the experiment will take about 5 minutes.

If everything is clear, you can now start the experiment.

☐ Yes

☐ No

1. platery

2. denial

3. generic

4. mensible

5. scornful

6. stoutly

7. ablaze

8. kermshaw

9. moonlit

10. lofty

11. hurricane

12. flaw

13. alberation

14. unkempt

15. breeding

16. festivity

17. screech

18. savoury

19. plaudate

20. shin

21. fluid

22. spaunch

23. allied

24. slain

25. recipient

26. exprate

27. eloquence

28. cleanliness

29. dispatch

30. rebondicate

31. ingenious

32. bewitch

33. skave

34. plaintively

35. kilp

36. interfate

37. hasty

38. lengthy

39. fray

40. crumper

41. upkeep

42. majestic

43. magrity

44. nourishment

45. abergy

46. proom

47. turmoil

48. carbohydrate

49. scholar

50. turtle

51. fellick

52. destription

53. cylinder

54. censorship

55. celestial

56. rascal

57. purrage

58. pulsh

59. muddy

60. quirky

61. pudour

62. listless

63. wrought

About Your Attitude and Motivation

	1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Strongly agree

1. I don't get anxious when I have to answer a question in my English class.
2. I look forward to going to class because my teacher is so good.
3. Learning English is really great.
4. If my country had no contact with English speaking countries, it would be a great loss.
5. I have a strong desire to know all aspects of English.
6. My last English class was enjoyable.
7. I would get nervous if I had to speak English to a tourist.
8. Studying English is not enjoyable.

9. I make a point of trying to understand all English that I see and hear.
10. Knowing English isn't really an important goal in my life.
11. I hate English.
12. I would rather spend more time in English class and less in other classes.
13. I feel confident when asked to speak in English class.
14. I really enjoy learning English.
15. If it were up to me, I would spend all of my time learning English.
16. I think my English class is boring.
17. Speaking English anywhere makes me worried.
18. I really have no interest in English.
19. The less I see of my English teacher, the better.
20. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.
21. I wish I could drop my English class.
22. It doesn't bother me at all to speak English.
23. I am calm whenever I have to speak in my English class.
24. My English teacher has a dynamic and interesting teaching style.
25. Native speakers of English are very sociable and kind.
26. I want to learn English so that it will become natural to me.
27. To be honest, I really have little interest in my English class.
28. It would bother me if I had to speak English on the telephone.
29. Studying English is important to my career.
30. It worries me that other students in the class seem to speak better English than I do.

31. I'm losing any desire I ever had to know English.
32. Learning English is a waste of time.
33. I would feel relaxed if I had to give street directions in English.
34. I like my English class so much, I look forward to studying more English in the future.
35. I tend to give up and not pay attention when I don't understand my English teacher's explanation of something.
36. I don't understand why other students feel nervous about speaking in English class.
37. My English teacher is a great source of inspiration to me.
38. I plan to learn as much English as possible.
39. To be honest, I don't like my English class.
40. I would feel uncomfortable speaking English anywhere outside the classroom.
41. I really work hard to learn English.
42. To be honest, I really have no desire to learn English.
43. I think that learning English is dull.
44. I would feel comfortable speaking English where speakers of my native language and English were present.
45. I look forward to the time I spend in my English class.
46. I can't be bothered trying to understand the more complex aspects of English.
47. Students who claim they get nervous in English class are just making

excuses.

48. I really like my English teacher.

49. I love learning English.

50. The more I get to know native speakers of English, the more I like them.

51. I wish I were fluent in English.

52. I have a hard time thinking of anything positive about my English class.

53. I feel anxious if someone asks me something in English.

54. I would rather see a TV program dubbed into my native language than in English with subtitles.

55. When I am studying English, I ignore distractions and pay attention to my task.

56. My teacher doesn't present materials in an interesting way.

57. I am sometimes anxious that the other students in the class will laugh at me when I speak English.

58. When my class ends, I will give up the study of English because I'm not interested in it.

59. I would feel calm and sure of myself if I had to order a meal in English.

60. English is one of my favorite courses.

About Your Teacher's Emotional Intelligence

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Completely disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Completely agree

1. Expressing themselves with words is not a problem for my teacher.
2. My teacher has difficulty seeing things from a student's point of view.
3. On the whole, my teacher is very motivated in the classroom.
4. It is difficult for my teacher to regulate their emotions.
5. My teacher doesn't seem to enjoy life.
6. My teacher deals effectively with students.
7. Many times my teacher can't seem to figure out what emotion they are feeling.
8. I feel that my teacher has many good qualities.
9. In their personal life, I imagine that my teacher would have difficulty standing up for their own rights.
10. In the classroom, my teacher is able to influence how the students feel.
11. On the whole, my teacher has a gloomy perspective.
12. In their personal life, my teacher is probably kind to the people in their life.
13. I imagine that my teacher probably finds it difficult to show affection to those in their personal life.
14. My teacher is able to control their emotions.
15. Generally, my teacher notices my emotions.
16. My teacher frequently changes their mind.
17. On the whole, my teacher seems pleased with their life.
18. On the whole, my teacher seems to deal with stress effectively.
19. My teacher is able to step into the students' shoes and understand their

emotions.

20. I admire my teacher for being relaxed.

21. When things don't work out, my teacher is able to adapt to the circumstances.

22. My teacher seems like they would have difficulty bonding to people in their personal life.

About Your Teacher's Happiness

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Completely disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Completely agree

23. In general, my teacher seems pleased with themselves.

24. My teacher is very interested in other people.

25. My teacher probably feels that teaching is rewarding.

26. My teacher has warm feelings towards the students.

27. My teacher often seems tired.

28. My teacher does not seem particularly optimistic about the future.

29. My teacher often finds things amusing.

30. In the classroom, my teacher is always committed and involved.

31. My teacher probably thinks the world is a good place.

32. My teacher laughs a lot.

33. My teacher is very happy.
34. My teacher often finds beauty in things.
35. My teacher has a cheerful effect on students.
36. My teacher seems to feel mentally fully alert.
37. In the classroom, my teacher experiences joy and elation.
38. My teacher doesn't find it easy to make decisions.
39. My teacher probably doesn't have fun with other people.

In the Classroom

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Completely disagree	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Completely agree

40. My teacher frequently allows students to work independently.
41. My teacher makes class exciting and stimulating.
42. My teacher enjoys lively classroom interactions.
43. When students make mistakes, my teacher is not harsh in correcting them.
44. My teacher explains things clearly and makes sure students understand.
45. My teacher treats all students fairly.

Done!

Thank you very much again for your participation!

As part of this research project, the researcher will be conducting follow-up interviews where students will be asked some questions about their responses. Participation is entirely voluntary. All personal information will be kept confidential.

If you would like to volunteer for a follow-up interview, please leave your email address and you will be contacted by the researcher. If you have any questions, please contact Sharona Moskowitz at: smosko02@mail.bbk.ac.uk.

Yes, I would like to participate in a follow-up interview. My email address is:
